# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 23, 1891.

## The Week.

THE gratifying intelligence is communicated from Washington that in the last fiscal year the sum of sixty cents was earned by American ships in carrying United States mails to Europe. Foreign ships received for this service about $400,000 during the same period. With a view to stimulating this peculiarly rickety infant industry, the last Congress provided for a system of bounties to be paid to vessels of American construction for carrying our mails to foreign countries, and the Postmaster-General now publishes an elaborate advertisement defining the routes to be followed by these vessels. As the Republicans have squandered all the surplus in the Treasury, and as there is little prospect that there will be any excess of revenue for some time to come, it might seem unwise to undertake at present the payment of any more bounties than we are absolutely committed to. But we venture to say that apprehensions of this nature may be allayed, for not even Mr. Wanamaker's advertisements, made more tempting by a promise of bounties—a prize-gift, so to speak, with every package of mail taken—can presently create an American merchant marine, "with an aggregate tonnage of 154,000 tons, and at a probable cost of from $27,000,000 to $30,000,000."

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At the time when the sugar bounty was under discussion, the Internal Revenue Bureau prepared estimates of the amount that the Government would be obliged to pay if the bounty went into effect. These estimates were based upon the existing production, and indicated that the bounty earned would be about $9,231,000. By the conditions of the law, every person intending to claim the bounty must make application by the 1st of July to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue for a license, which application shall state the amount of sugar he proposes to make during the ensuing year. These applications have now been received, and the result, as shown in a despatch to the New York *World*, is rather startling—or would be if the waste of a few millions by the Government produced any effect on the public mind. The Government's estimate of the cane-sugar product was 420,000,000 pounds. The applications from Louisiana alone show an anticipated production of 551,000,000. The applications relating to beet sugar show an expected product of twice the amount estimated by the Government. If these anticipations are realized, the Government will have to pay about $3,300,000 more in bounties than it counted upon. It is to be hoped that the applicants for bounties are too sanguine in their expectations.

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It seems that the Republic of Venezuela is not attracted by the advantages of reciprocity as presented in Mr. Blaine's treaty. A despatch to the *World* states that the President of the Republic laid the matter before the Congress for its advice, and the answer of the Congress is to the effect that Venezuela would suffer a great loss of revenue without any compensating gains. The answer declares that the Blaine project has, besides an element of novelty, a tendency to harmonize great economic interests, and that it displays the result of vigorous thought developed by a notable statesman. But it is not exactly the thing for Venezuela, for that country would be compelled, if the treaty were accepted, to make up elsewhere nearly 33 per cent. of her customs revenue. Moreover, the abolition of duties upon the products of the United States would render the importation of like products from Europe unprofitable, and thereby further diminish the revenue from import duties. On the other hand, the exemption from duty of the agricultural products of Venezuela when imported into the United States could not be expected to cause any compensating rise in their prices. The Congress recognizes the advantages to consumers of reduced customs duties, and declares that such reduction should be the policy of every just and liberal government, but it points out that the necessity of obtaining revenue is at present paramount. All that the United States was able to offer Venezuela as an inducement to enter into the treaty was a continuation of the free import of coffee, and the exemption from duty of goatskins, honey, and certain kinds of sugar. This was coupled with the threat that if the treaty were refused, a duty of three cents a pound on coffee and one and one-half cents a pound upon hides imported into the United States from Venezuela might be imposed. On the other hand, the Venezuelans were to abolish the duties upon wheat and flour, corn and all its products, cereals, hay and oats, pork, lard, butter, cheese, cotton-seed oil, macaroni, coal, wood, tar, pitch, and turpentine, and machinery, including agricultural implements and mining and industrial utensils. Among products upon which duties were to be reduced one-fourth were manufactures of cotton, of iron and steel, of leather, of wood, and of rubber. It must be admitted that the bargain does not look very tempting from the Venezuelan point of view. The answer of the Congress is a document evidently prepared by very competent hands.

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The French Chamber has voted to rescind the prohibition against American pork, and impose instead a duty of 20 francs per 100 kilos (or $4 per 220 pounds). This duty of about 40 per cent. ad valorem ought to be satisfactory to the McKinleyites, being considerably less than our duty on French silks, besides interposing fewer obstacles of an administrative sort. It would have been quite in accordance with *our* methods if the French Chamber had added to the specific duty a small ad-valorem duty also, and then passed a customs administrative bill requiring the butcher and the breeder of American swine to prove the cost of production of their pork. But, although the French are pretty well up in the science of protection, they have some things yet to learn. Whether they have yet learned that the American farmer will pay the duty on pork imported into France from this country and thus contribute to the support of the French armed and naval forces, is uncertain, but they can learn something of that kind by examining the speeches made in Congress in favor of the McKinley Bill. If we are to pay the duty as well as supply the pork, the bargain will be a hard one for us, and yet we fancy that a great many good protectionists will hail the repeal of the prohibitory decree as a great victory and boon. Such persons probably think that foreigners pay the duties that we levy on their goods and also those that they levy on our goods.

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The McKinley duties were put on corduroys in order to oblige a firm of manufacturers in Rhode Island who had never made any corduroy, but who were confident of their ability to do so if a high enough duty were put upon the foreign product. Senator Aldrich had the duties increased to 80 and even 85 per cent. on the lower grades, which are used for clothing by poor people, raising the price from thirty to forty cents a yard, while the price of the high grades, which are used only by well-to-do people, was advanced only about three cents a yard. The result has been to force the poor people who formerly bought these goods for their clothing, to either pay a third more for it or buy some cheaper and less durable material. Like the tin iniquity, this duty was put upon an article not a particle of which is manufactured in America, or can be manufactured here without the importation of foreign skilled labor. A reporter tried to get from the agent of the Rhode Island firm who had this tax put on to enable them to give birth to an infant industry, a list of samples with prices, but he only succeeded in getting sight of a small piece of corduroy inferior in weight and quality to the foreign product. This sample, like those of the various American tin works, was only for exhibition purposes. No goods are for sale, or likely to be for a long time to come.

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The *New Yorker Handels-Zeitung* publishes an interview with Secretary Foster on the subject of the Gold Movement, the condition of the Treasury, and kindred topics. Mr. Foster thinks that we sent abroad seventy million dollars in gold because we owed the money. He thinks that some of this gold will come back to us when the breadstuffs movement becomes active, but

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not all of it. He thinks there will be a large demand for money then. This was one of the reasons why he decided to extend the 4½ per cent. bonds instead of paying them. He believes that this operation will add about $25,000,000 to the circulating medium. Another reason for extending the bonds instead of paying them was that "the expenditures are growing and the receipts in the Treasury are becoming smaller." This is the first admission we have seen in print, from any Treasury official, of a fact which the business community has considered an inevitable result of the pension and tariff legislation of the last Congress. The Secretary says that he should like to convert the 4 per cent. bonds also into 2 per cents having a longer time to run, but he does not think that the next House of Representatives will agree to that. That House, he thinks, will pass a free-coinage-of-silver bill, and that he is strongly opposed to.

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There are signs of a disposition on the part of the Republican leaders to oust Mr. Quay from the Chairmanship of the National Executive Committee. They begin to talk of the difficulty they have had for some time in persuading him not to resign, and to intimate that after a long struggle Mr. Quay is getting the better of them. Mr. J. S. Clarkson now confesses that immediately after the election Mr. Quay began to talk in this way, claiming that the detail work of a political committee was not a proper employment for a United States Senator. The rest of the Committee unanimously opposed this contention, and by dwelling upon the absolutely harmonious relations that had prevailed among them, "the members becoming endeared to each other thereby," temporarily overcame Mr. Quay's determination. But he is a man of iron will. When he starts for a goal, he generally gets there, and he has fairly tired his colleagues into letting him depart. From all this it appears probable that Mr. Quay is to withdraw and Mr. Clarkson to take his place. The people are to understand, however, that Mr. Quay's career has had nothing to do with this change, and that the Republican party declines to take any credit to itself for deposing a disreputable leader. If he would only have remained, they say, they would have been only too glad to have him.

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It looks very much as if ex-Judge Harrison would be "read out of the party" in Connecticut for revealing the facts about the Republican plot, led by the editor of the Hartford *Evening Post*, to steal three of the State offices from the Democrats. He is denounced daily in the Hartford organ as having "made an attack upon the Republican party," and that view is taken of him by nearly or quite all the party organs in the State. He is thus shown to be "no better than a Mugwump" or an "assistant-Democrat," and the party has no further use for him. Are his charges true? Oh, yes, but that makes his offence all the more unpardonable. He should have stayed in the party, kept quiet about its rascalities, and endeavored to "reform it from the inside." That is the only course for a loyal Republican to follow. As Quay says of Bardsley's theft of $2,000,000 of the public money, "he stole it as Bardsley, not as a Republican," and the Philadelphia newspapers all exclaim in chorus, "That is the point precisely." The editor of the Hartford *Evening Post* was trying to steal three State offices for his party, but he was trying to "steal as Porter, not as a Republican," and Judge Harrison should have either kept quiet about it or spoken of it only in that way.

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The experts who have been examining the accounts of Bardsley, the thieving Philadelphia Treasurer, have made an elaborate report which shows that he misappropriated over $778,000 of public money, and that he sunk over $1,121,000 more in the Keystone Bank, making a total loss to the city and State through his rascality of nearly $2,000,000. He used over one million dollars in stock speculations, and it is interesting to note that Kemble, of "addition, division, and silence" fame, was one of his partners in these operations. The stubs of his check-books show that he used the public money as freely as if it were his own. Republican State officials were in great luck in enjoying his liberality with this money. One stub is marked: "To the order of myself for Wm. Livsey, State Treasurer, for his kindness to me during the year, $500." The Auditor-General of the State, Thomas McCamant, and one of his clerks, H. N. Graffin, were sharers with Bardsley in the rebates which he obtained from the Philadelphia newspapers on the public advertising. His accounts show that he obtained 40 per cent. commission on this advertising from four newspapers, amounting in one year, 1889, to $16,289, and that he put $7,144 of this into his own pocket, gave $7,144 of it to the Auditor-General, and $2,000 of it to Graffin. In 1890 he seems to have taken the entire commissions for himself, for he deposited over $17,000 to his own credit as "newspaper balance." In 1891 he deposited over $8,000 in the same way. One curious entry shows that he paid $1,000 to a newspaper, the *Item*, "in place of getting" the public advertising—that is to say, he took $1,000 of the public money and presented it as a "consolation prize" to an editor who had been disappointed in getting any of the advertising.

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One of the newspapers which paid the 40 per cent. commission was the *Press*, that stalwart defender of Wanamaker and Quay and all the other Republican leaders who are not in jail or on the way there. The *Press* explains, in a truly Wanamakerish manner, as follows:

> "The *Press* paid no rebate on its city or State advertising. H. N. Graffin brought the Mercantile Appraisers' advertising to the *Press* and offered it at a rate which would pay the paper to print it after paying the commission which he demanded, of 40 per cent. It was a large volume of advertising, offered under conditions which permitted its publication without interfering with the general news or ordinary advertising of the paper. It could be obtained on no other terms except by paying the commission demanded; and, while the *Press* considered the rate exorbitant, it preferred to pay it rather than lose the business. The *Press* received from Mr. Bardsley a check for the full amount which the city paid for the Mercantile Appraisers' advertisement, and then gave H. N. Graffin his commission for bringing in the business."

It seems never to have occurred to the *Press* to ask how it happened that Graffin was able to dictate such exorbitant terms, or what the "pull" was which gave him control of so profitable a job. It says now that Graffin "collected not only for himself but for his superiors," that "Messrs. McCamant and Bardsley took advantage of their power to grossly abuse it," that the city is paying for its advertisements "more than they are worth," and that "the whole system of official advertising is conducted on a vicious principle." The *Press* is evidently as grieved at being caught in company with a lot of public thieves as good Mr. Wanamaker himself is.

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In a surprisingly weak defence of Mr. Wanamaker's relations with the Keystone Bank and its rascals, the *Independent* makes this statement concerning that memorable incident in Washington, the night before the bank was closed, when Marsh made a final attempt to induce Wanamaker to give up his fraudulent stock:

> "Afterwards, when there was a thought of reorganizing the bank, Marsh and two other gentlemen, including the attorney of the Lucas estate, visited him [Wanamaker] in Washington to see if he were willing to surrender his stock for this purpose. He says he refused unless he were paid for it. Was this wrong? He held it as collateral, and it represented a large sum of money he had advanced; was it strange that he should want to get part of the money back, if possible?"

This is not in accordance with Mr. Wanamaker's account of the interview. He did not say that "he refused unless he were paid for it." Here is what he said, quoted verbatim from the Philadelphia *Ledger's* report of his testimony:

> "I said to those gentlemen that up to that time no person but Mr. Marsh had called the stock in question, but that now that the Vice-President of the bank and the attorney of the Lucas estate had done so, I felt obliged to say that they must either settle with me, or I could not in justice to myself allow the Comptroller of the Currency to be ignorant of the fact that they were claiming that some of the stock that I held was improper stock."

The *Independent* will see that demanding money for the stock, under a threat, in case of refusal, to give the Comptroller information which would lead to the closing of the bank, was a very different proceeding from a mere refusal to surrender it unless he were paid for it. It will see, also, that the good man was demanding money, something like $50,000, for stock which three good authorities had assured him was fraudulent. We put it to the *Independent* to answer its own question in regard to this ex-

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traordinary conduct on the part of a Sunday-school instructor and public moralist: "Was it wrong?"

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The *Christian Union* is even more cautious than the *Independent* in commenting upon Mr. Wanamaker's case. It says:

"We do not think it our duty to anticipate the further investigations which should be made, alike in the interest of the public and of Mr. Wanamaker, and which it must be presumed both the proper officials of the State of Pennsylvania and Mr. Wanamaker will demand. It must suffice to remind our readers that if, on the one hand, high position and even Christian reputation do not suffice to make unnecessary official investigation into such definite charges as have been preferred by Mr. Bardsley against Mr. Wanamaker, on the other hand there are always men and presses in the community ready to assume that one who occupies such a position and possesses such a reputation is to be presumed guilty until he is proved innocent. The reverse is certainly the case. The presumptions are all against the truth of charges so preferred, and the public, as well as the courts, should presume innocence unless guilt is established."

This is a distinct intimation to Mr. Wanamaker that he needs to demand further inquiry in order to establish his innocence, the *Christian Union* not taking the view of the Wanamakered press in Philadelphia that his last statement was a "clear, comprehensive, and conclusive refutation of all the intimations and innuendos that have been made against him." The *Christian Union* is surely not unmindful of the fact that the same "Christian reputation" which serves as a shield for a good man against charges of unworthy conduct, also demands from him great circumspection in his daily walk and conversation. It is because Mr. Wanamaker makes such loud professions of "Christian reputation" that he is held to so strict accountability for his acts. If it be a censurable proceeding for a carnal and worldly man to demand $50,000 for a block of fraudulent bank stock as his price for keeping quiet about it, is it not more censurable for a man of "Christian reputation" to demand it? And ought not his Christian brethren to rebuke him sternly for his conduct, rather than to seek to hide it under the mantle of his "Christian reputation"?

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The Farmers' Alliance set out to capture the Democratic party in Mississippi and commit it to their sub-treasury scheme, but the Democratic leaders, with Senator George at their head, fought them from the start with the utmost vigor. It is already clear that the people are on the side of George, the opponents of the sub-treasury scheme constituting four-fifths of the recent Democratic State Convention, and enough Democratic county conventions have been held to show that both George and his colleague Walthall (if he will withdraw his refusal to be a candidate) will be reëlected to the Senate by the Legislature, which will have the disposal of both Senatorships, as no State election will be held after next November until 1895. The result of the registration for the coming election, by the way, shows that the whites constitute a large majority of the voters on the rolls, but few negroes having made any effort to pass the educational test.

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An extraordinary spectacle is now to be witnessed at the office of the Register of Deeds in Brooklyn. That office closes its doors at four o'clock every afternoon, except Saturday, when they are closed at twelve, and at those hours the public must withdraw. Without the doors, however, stands a small army of clerks, apparently a hundred or more in number, equipped with small yellow books and writing materials. To these clerks the doors are again opened, they enter and fill all the desks of the immense Hall of Records, and work there steadily until ten o'clock at night. The superficial explanation of this phenomenon is, that this army consists of clerks employed by the Lawyers' Title Insurance Company to transcribe records, and that that company has made it an object to the Register to allow its employees special facilities. The ultimate explanation is, that the State has so utterly failed to manage the delicate and responsible work of maintaining a system of recorded titles that private enterprise has been compelled to step in and practically take the work off its hands by introducing more scientific methods. For many years it has been the deliberate policy of the officers having charge of the real-estate records to perpetuate an obsolete system of indexing for the purpose of swelling their own fees. In the cities of New York and Brooklyn this policy has only been met by giving their officers salaries and allowing them to satisfy the requirements of their positions by overcharging for disbursements and by the employment of superfluous underlings. Provided these things are secured to them, the records may take care of themselves, and if anything is to be made by allowing copyists special facilities, it is so much clear gain. The labor of transcribing all the records in New York and Kings Counties is something prodigious. The deeds alone must number more than a million, and the transcription of five deeds in an hour would probably be all that could be accomplished with proper regard to accuracy. Vast as the labor is, it has become so necessary that there will shortly be three complete sets of records of deeds and mortgages in Kings and New York Counties—one antiquated, cumbrous, badly indexed, but official, the others compact, convenient, and perfect as intelligence and money can make them, but having no official character. In the face of this showing, the plan of the philosophers who call themselves Nationalists to make conveyancing a Government monopoly would not seem to be justified by experience.

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The English Labor Commission is bringing out some very edifying testimony from the representatives of the unions of workingmen. Some of them perplex the believers in improving mankind by Government inspection by testifying that most of the Government inspectors of factories are inefficient. Others discomfit the philosophers who hold that the conditions of the employment of laborers by capitalists are fundamentally wrong and unjust, by testifying that the Employers' Liability Act has had the effect of increasing the number of accidents, while the employers' insurance companies have made it hard for the men to get any damages. The advocates of compulsory temperance are pained by being told that the act prohibiting the payment of wages in public-houses is practically a dead letter. It might seem that the collapse of so many socialistic experiments at the outset would operate to discourage the believers in state regulation, but the testimony of these witnesses is overwhelming that the trouble is that the measures do not go far enough. What is wanted is that the State should maintain workshops where all the unemployed should find employment, or at least wages. Thus the trade unions would take care of their own members, their employers being unable to hire non-union men, and the State would take care of all whom the unions did not admit. We do not see why this is not a good experiment to try. It was tried some forty years ago in France, where it was unfortunately terminated by the sudden death of many thousands of the workmen in a difficulty with the military. The public workshops were found to be so unprofitable that their expenses had to be reduced; the workmen naturally struck, and, their employer being the State itself, they came in collision with the force of the State. But, as a rule, men will learn only by experience, and a sharp experience of this kind, if tried now, might save us from a more lingering and more fatal disorder.

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The arrest of the murderers of M. Beltcheff, the Bulgarian Minister of Finance, is an event which may have very serious consequences. Beltcheff was shot dead on his own door-step, where he was standing in company with M. Stambuloff, the Prime Minister. As he had no enemies, while Stambuloff had and has many, the theory most commonly accepted has been that the murderers intended to kill the latter, but made a mistake in the darkness. The key to all the troubles in Bulgaria is the natural and burning ambition of that country to be an independent nation, and to expand as time and opportunity shall allow. Stambuloff represents this idea. Opposed to him is the faction which, whether in the pay of Russia or not, aims to make the country a dependency of the Czar. The greater part of educated Bulgaria sides with Stambuloff, but the other side has a considerable following among the peasantry, who only remember that when the Russians were in Bulgaria, money was plenty and the prices of grain and vegetables high. It is useless to speculate on the revelations that the trial of the assassins may yield, but it will be strange if some light is not shed on the Eastern question in general, including the Panitza affair and the kidnapping of Prince Alexander.

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### THE OHIO CAMPAIGN.

THAT the Democrats of Ohio would set their faces against the McKinley tariff, and against protective tariffs in general, and would renominate Gov. Campbell, were conclusions anticipated before the meeting of their State Convention. What position they would take on the silver question was a matter of doubt. The platform adopted favors free coinage, but this result was secured only after a stout battle on the part of the opponents of that policy, the majority being 99 in a convention of 700. Moreover, as we are informed, last year a free-silver plank was put in the platform without opposition in the Convention, and with but a single negative vote in the Committee on Resolutions. This year nine of the nineteen committeemen who voted were opposed to the plank. The silver plank, then, is not conclusive of the attitude of the party in Ohio next year, when the issue will become more pertinent than it is now; but it is something which cannot be overlooked. The Republicans have taken their stand on the present law, which, in our belief, will conduct the nation to the silver standard if adhered to, but by a gradual process. The Republican position is better than the Democratic in this particular, but the difference is not as wide as the poles.

The significance of the Ohio campaign will depend very much upon the way in which it is conducted. It is possible for the campaign managers to give such prominence to the tariff issue that the silver question will be lost sight of for the time being, and this seems to be the most probable course of events. The Republicans, by nominating Mr. McKinley, have taken their stand on the measure which bears his name, and the Democrats have in express terms acknowledged the challenge. "We accept," they say, "the issue tendered to us by the Republican party on the subject of the tariff, as represented by the so-called McKinley Tariff Act, confident that the verdict of the people of Ohio will be recorded against the iniquitous policy of so-called protection, championed by the Republican party in the interest of favored classes against the masses."

If the speeches made in the Convention may be taken as the keynote of the campaign, there will be, as there ought to be, an illuminating and enlivening discussion of the items of the McKinley Bill, and the Republicans will be put on the defensive at a hundred different points. So long as the controversy is waged over abstractions, very little headway will be made, but when the particular things in this measure are brought under review, it will be found to be essentially a dishonest measure. It is not necessary to affirm, and we do not affirm, that the persons who voted for it, or who now support it, are dishonest. The greater part of them are as honest as other people, but the measure itself reeks with dishonesty from beginning to end, as do nearly all the protective-tariff taxes ever passed by Congress. The reason why they are filled up with swindling provisions is perfectly plain. When Congress attempts to overhaul all the industries of the country, every man who has any special pecuniary interest in it is prompted to go to Washington to work for himself. Congressmen are for the most part lawyers, having little acquaintance with business, and even if they had much acquaintance with business in general, they could not have it with each particular trade. Probably the man having the most varied information in the last Congress was Senator Aldrich. Yet the blunders he made in dealing with particular things were in many cases startling and always pernicious. No doubt, in each such case he took the word of some interested party and made no independent investigation, for which, indeed, there was no time.

As illustrating Mr. Aldrich's ways of arriving at the truth, and as exhibiting the dishonesty of protective tariffs in general, we recall for a moment a confession made by that Senator when somebody asked him how the duty on iron ore had been fixed at seventy-five cents per ton in the tariff of 1883. Both houses had voted for fifty cents per ton, although in different bills. Not a vote had been taken authorizing any higher rate of duty. Morally, the Committee of Conference, to which the subject was finally referred, was bound to report the duty at fifty cents, neither more nor less. But when the bill was reported, this particular item had been raised to seventy-five cents, and it was necessary for Congress to adopt that rate and take the risk of its far-reaching consequences or to reject the bill altogether. When Senator Aldrich was asked why this had been done, he said that it was done at the suggestion of "Billy" Mahone of Virginia, who was not a member of the Committee, although he was a member of the Senate at that time. There is no reason, apparently, why any particular rate of duty, once agreed to by both houses, should not be increased in this underhand way at the suggestion of anybody, either in or out of Congress. There are several items in the McKinley tariff involving very large interests that were smuggled into the bill surreptitiously in the same way as Mahone's iron-ore tax was in the tariff of 1883.

The duty on tin plate was a swindle from the outset. The mainspring of that increased duty was not the hope and expectation of starting the tin-plate industry in this country, but of compelling people to use galvanized iron instead of tin for roofing purposes. The wool items of the tariff, again, are full of deceptive and swindling provisions which have been repeatedly exposed in the public prints and by manufacturers who are themselves protectionists. The fact that these deceptive and underhand provisions have brought no benefit to those whom they were intended to help, and have yielded only heart-burnings and mutual crimination between wool-growers and manufacturers, ought to be, and we doubt not will be, effectively used in the Ohio campaign. If McKinley is put to explaining *seriatim* all the bad things in his bill, he will be left with a large arrearage of overdue accounts.

### THE DRAIN OF GOLD FROM THE TREASURY.

THE Treasury statement at the close of the fiscal year 1890-'91 (June 30) showed that the gold reserve held by the Government was, in round numbers, $117,600,000. This is very nearly the lowest sum held at any time since the resumption of specie payments. Once before the reserve has been ominously low—in May, 1885, when it sank to $116,000,000. During the fiscal year just elapsed it declined in two great jumps. On July 1, 1890, it was $190,000,000, on October 1 it was less than $150,000,000; then for six months there was a cessation of the drain, the amount being still nearly $150,000,000 on April 1. During the last few months, the amount has again fallen, and with extraordinary rapidity, going down to $133,000,000 at the close of May, and falling to less than $118,000,000 at the beginning of the new fiscal year. Whether the decline will proceed further remains to be seen. During the period since June 30 there has been no material change, the figures for Saturday, July 18, being $117,570,000.

The cause of this shrinkage, or rather the other side of it, is to be found in the character of the money received by the Government in payment of taxes. Until the beginning of the fiscal year (1890-91) those receipts had been for some time paid almost exclusively in gold. Until September 1 of last year the Government was still getting 90 per cent. of its customs receipts at New York in gold or gold certificates; but since then the percentage has steadily fallen, in March to 65 per cent., in May to 28 per cent., and in June was as low as 12 per cent. In other words, more and more of the public receipts have been in other sorts of money than gold; in silver certificates, in greenbacks, and in the new silver currency—the Treasury notes of 1890. At first silver certificates took the place of gold; then the new Treasury notes shouldered it out of the way; and finally the greenbacks have begun to come in. In the last full month, June, the silver certificates contributed 14 per cent. to the customs receipts at New York, the new Treasury notes contributed 29 per cent., and the old legal tenders or greenbacks no less than 44½ per cent.; leaving in gold only the beggarly 12 per cent. already stated.

Under such circumstances the gold holdings necessarily decline. The Government is constantly paying out gold, especially through the New York Clearing-house; and its maintenance of a gold reserve depends on a continual inflow of that metal in its tax receipts. If the present movement goes on a few months longer, the gold reserve of the Treasury will have disappeared, and with it the gold standard as the basis of our entire circulating medium. The significant sign of an approach to that unfortunate condition is always in the character of the money turned in to the Government at New York. The critical situation in May, 1885, to which we referred a moment ago, was brought about in precisely the same way, and it is doubtless in this way that the breakdown will eventually come.

The causes of the striking changes which

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the last few months have shown are not far to seek. The leading cause, of course, is the issue of the new Treasury notes under the act with which the last Congress blessed us. Combined with it is the depression in business which set in last fall. The new notes are issued to the amount of four and a half millions a month, more or less. If the steady increase in the transactions of a growing community called for this additional amount, they would be used in the exchanges of every-day life, and would remain permanently in circulation. The saving of the gold standard under the old Silver Act of 1878 was that it did not necessitate, on the whole and in the long run, the issue of more silver than could be absorbed in this way. It is doubtful whether the doubling of the issue in 1890 would not have caused trouble in any event; but, coming as it did in a period of depression such as we have had for the last eight or ten months, the result has been inevitable. The new note issues have put forth more money than the community could conveniently use at the present scale of prices and under the present volume of business. They have not caused, as might have been predicted, that immediate revival of activity which our friend Mr. Bland and his associates have so often and so eloquently depicted as the certain effects of their panacea of "more money." They have drifted back into the hands of the banks, and through the banks into the Treasury. The movement has now reached the stage not only of an ominous decline in the gold reserve, but of an ominous wavering of general confidence in the ability of the Government to maintain the policy which it has successfully followed ever since the resumption of specie payments—that of paying gold to every public creditor who demands it. The marked inflow of greenbacks into the Government's hands is the unmistakable sign of that decline in confidence.

We will not be so rash as to predict an early breakdown. No doubt the maintenance of the gold standard depends on the continuance of gold payments by the Treasury, and the present drain is bringing the Treasury in sight of danger. But if the crops prove as plentiful as is expected, the movement may be checked. Abundant crops mean not only an increase of exports, which will check the call for gold on foreign account, but also a demand for currency in the West and South which will greatly aid the Treasury. The regular autumnal call for money "to move the crops" will carry to the West a large part of the silver certificates and Treasury notes which are now displacing gold in the tax receipts, and will cause gold to resume something like its former proportion. We may hope that the tide will soon turn, and that the gold reserve will be maintained at its present point, and even replenished to some extent. That it will be permanently maintained, however, cannot be hoped. The issue of silver money under the act of 1890 is excessive: four and a half millions a month is more than can be absorbed in the daily use even of a country advancing as rapidly in wealth and population as the United States. The silver notes sooner or later will crowd out the gold, first from the Government Treasury, and eventually, if the process is allowed to work itself out, from the country at large.

## THE MISFORTUNE OF THE CENSUS.

It is probably the case that the ordinary citizen does not regard a census as a matter of very great consequence, and he concerns himself little with the criticisms that are made upon our census of 1890. This view, however, is entirely inadequate, and the matter is in so many ways of such extreme importance to the public that it deserves a careful examination. A census is not a detached event or phenomenon. Viewed by itself it is of comparatively little interest. Its significance appears when its results are compared with what has already been ascertained. It is, to be sure, a national taking account of stock. It ought to tell us how many we number, how many are born, how many have died, and how many have come from abroad. It ought to tell us what our possessions are, what our income is and what our outgo, and in general to set forth such information as every sound business man desires to have concerning his own affairs. But this knowledge only acquires its full value when it is compared with knowledge already recorded. The census, in a word, is a term in a series. If the term is dropped out or is uncertain, the whole series is affected. It becomes impossible to derive any general principles as to rates of progress, as to directions in which changes are taking place, as to the scale upon which tendencies and movements are manifesting themselves, or even as to the existence of such tendencies and movements.

Furthermore, this is not a matter of purely national consequence. The United States constitute one of the family of great civilized States, and whatever takes place upon any large scale in our development is of interest and importance to the world. In the calculations of the statist all mankind are included—*humani nil alienum.* If the hygienist is endeavoring to establish conclusions upon which regulations affecting the health of his own community are to be framed, he desires to have as broad a basis of experience to go upon as possible. If the merchant proposes to employ his capital in the grain traffic, he desires to know what is produced not only in one country, but in all countries. The intelligent regulation of our future acts depends upon an accurate knowledge of the past, and for this knowledge upon a large scale and in social affairs in general the census reports are the only repository. If the knowledge is not to be found there, it is in many cases not to be found at all. If it is imperfectly obtained or incorrectly recorded, the mischief is irreparable. If the chance is not improved, it is lost, and no subsequent labor can in most cases repair the loss.

The mischievous consequences, therefore, of a defective census are world-wide and far-reaching. They will continue to exasperate the statistician and to perplex the statesman, not for a decade, but for half-a-century. Every investigation that is undertaken will be hampered, and it will be open to every one to question or repudiate every conclusion that is reached by the use of data which are themselves questionable. With such data the economic charlatan stands on a level with the trained economist. Every attempt at a scientific induction must involve the use of figures corrected more or less by guesswork, and hence all such inductions will be open to attack by any one who is displeased with their result upon the ground that guesswork is not science.

The responsibility, therefore, of President Harrison, when it became his duty to select a Superintendent of the Census of 1890, was grave. The place called for a man of proved scientific capacity and attainments, and such men, we are proud to say, are not lacking in our country. It would have been possible to find men of that type who were identified with the Republican party, and whose character, both personally and as investigators, was so high that the most bitter partisan would not have ventured to breathe the suspicion that motives of party expediency would be allowed to affect their official work. And this should have been no light consideration, for upon the result of the census as to population depended the apportionment of Representatives in Congress. Finally, it would have been possible to appoint a native American; and if there ever was a case where the maxim of the old Know-Nothing party, "Put none but Americans on guard," would have applied, it was in filling a post where the most prolonged and extensive familiarity with our country would have been none too great a qualification for the proper understanding of the work to be done.

Instead of being influenced by considerations of this broad kind, President Harrison seems to have made this important appointment upon party grounds alone. Doubtless his own education and habit of thought had not made him acquainted with the important part played by statistics in modern times, but he at least knew the names of men of distinction in the scientific world who could have enlightened his ignorance. Rather than take advice of this kind, however, he preferred to seek counsel from his high-tariff Pennsylvania supporters, and accepted at their suggestion a man of foreign birth, distinguished chiefly for defaming his native country, of imperfect education, known only by his inferior work on the preceding census, and by the ardent protectionism which won him a place on the Tariff Commission and caused him to be put in charge of a virulent and unscrupulous campaign newspaper. A more unfit appointment in every respect could hardly have been made.

It is believed, by persons having exceptionally good opportunities for obtaining information, that this appointment was directed by the ring of Pennsylvania protectionists for the express purpose of manufacturing evidence in favor of their monopolies. The Tariff Commission of 1883 had shown that there was no reason for maintaining the protective duties at their then high rate, and this ring determined that the next census should be taken by a man who would see to

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it that no evidence supporting such unpleasant conclusions should be admitted. But it is unnecessary to rest the case against this appointment upon beliefs the truth of which is not demonstrable. We have the indisputable fact that the work of Mr. Porter upon the census of 1880, the volume upon taxation, was grossly bungled. In that volume we look in vain for any reference to poll-taxes, to license taxes, to corporation taxes. With such omissions as these no estimate of the amount of taxation is possible, and the whole report upon this subject becomes worthless for the purpose of statistical comparison.

As to the present census, the blunders committed in the bulletin of municipal expenditure are now exciting the ridicule of every unmuzzled newspaper. Other blunders have been exposed as they have occurred, but of course the fundamental and irretrievable error was made in the enumeration of the people. As was pointed out by *Nature*, even if we increase the population of 1870 to 40,000,000 to help Mr. Porter out of his difficulty, thus reducing the apparent increase between 1870 and 1880 from about 9,000,000 to about 7,500,000, we should still be confronted with the fact that, "starting from a larger population, and with a larger immigration, the excess of births over deaths in 1880-'90 would have been from 25 to 30 per cent. more than in the previous decade, or at least 9,500,000, whereas it appears to be under 7,000,000." It is this blunder which will confound all who attempt to make comparisons of the rates of growth of populations, and will make the millions of dollars spent on this census worse than wasted. It may be that Mr. Porter has done his best, but President Harrison can offer no excuse for committing the most important, and, we might almost say, the most difficult and the most delicate of all scientific experiments, into the hands of an utterly unqualified political adventurer. It is one of the greatest sins of his Administration, and one that the public should not forget.

## NORWEGIAN POLITICS.

COPENHAGEN, June 30, 1891.

NORWAY has its own Ministry, responsible to the home Parliament, but the Scandinavian Foreign Office, representing the Union abroad in both diplomatic and consular affairs, is Swedish. The Minister must, according to the Swedish Constitution, be a Swedish subject, appointed by the King as King of Sweden, and responsible to the Swedish Chamber. All foreign questions are referred by this official either to the Ministerial State Council, which is purely Swedish in origin, but to which, since 1837, the Norwegian Minister of State has been admitted, or to the Combined Council, a body formed in 1814, and composed of both Norwegian and Swedish members. To the latter body are referred important foreign questions, such as treaties, conventions, extraditions, salaries, etc. The Ministerial Council has charge of all matters not contained in the duties of the other. The responsibility for the whole, however, is vested in the Swedish Minister, while the official language of the department is Swedish.

The only point in which Norway's share at all approaches that of Sweden is in the expense. It is not strange, therefore, that a vast majority of the Norwegian people, without respect to party, should be highly dissatisfied with this arrangement. From every side complaints are heard. So grave, indeed, has the question finally grown that the Conservative Ministry of Stang was forced to resign in consequence of its non-success in solving the difficult problem. What makes the situation doubly galling to the independent Norwegians is the fact that their commerce exceeds that of Sweden more than twice over. In no particular, except that of population, can Sweden claim superiority over its sister kingdom. In art, literature, manufactures, and commerce Norway is her equal if not her superior. The two kingdoms are, furthermore, commercial competitors. Each has its separate custom-house, each strives to attract trade and capital to its own advantage. It would never occur to two competing business houses to employ the same foreign agent, responsible to only one of them, yet this is just what these two competing countries are doing.

The question resolves itself into two parts, the diplomatic and the consular service, of which the latter, as being the more pressing and practical, may properly be considered first. However much the national pride would be gratified by a separate diplomatic representation abroad, there are many thoughtful men in Norway who regard this measure as both unwise in its conception and unpractical in its execution. With regard to the consular representation, on the other hand, there is a far greater approach to unanimity. The consular service is a strictly business affair, having nothing to do with a nation's foreign policy. No mention is made of a common consular service in the agreement of Union, and the majority of Norwegian authorities, as well as many Swedish ones, are of the opinion that Norway never relinquished its right to such separate representation. For four hundred years before the Union, Norway, being a province of Denmark, had no organized consular service, and during the few months of its separate existence no steps were taken in this direction. It was natural, therefore, that the Swedish service should be taken provisionally, without, however, thereby acknowledging the necessity of such an arrangement in the future. Legally, this prerogative can be exercised by the Swedish Ministry only so long as the Norwegian people permit it.

That Norway's right to attend to its own consular affairs is actually recognized by the Swedish Government, is proved by the fact that all such matters concerning Norway alone have for many years been referred to a branch of the Norwegian Department of the Interior. Were the authority now exercised by the Swedish Minister transferred, by a royal proclamation, to this department, the whole problem would be solved. The change would undoubtedly necessitate some additional expense, but this difference would be more than compensated for by the improvement in the service. The increased expense has been estimated by a Norwegian authority, Sigurd Ibsen, at 150,000 kroner (say $42,000) per annum. The great majority of Scandinavian consuls are unpaid, and, to simplify the matter still further, it has been suggested that these officials be retained, or, rather, receive a second appointment as Norwegian consuls.

It should be borne in mind, furthermore, that every just and proper claim obtained by Norway is a step towards a closer union of the two countries. One of the strongest characteristics of the Norwegian people is their jealousy of Sweden, and anything that tends to lessen this feeling must eventually prove a benefit to both countries. It is not to be expected, however, that the Swedish Chamber will consent to this change without a struggle. Temporary ill feeling will be excited by this as by every other Norwegian reform movement hitherto. But a slight passing irritation is far more desirable than the continual international friction produced by the present condition.

The problem of a separate diplomatic service, to whose solution the Liberal party is pledged, is by no means so simple as that of the consular. Even Norwegian authorities are at variance with regard to its legality, while Swedish statesmen are to a man opposed to it. By the latter, as well as by the Conservatives in Norway, it is regarded as a move towards the dissolution of the Union. As a compromise, it is suggested that the Minister of Foreign Affairs be either a Norwegian or a Swede, and be under the control of two delegations of equal numbers, formed from and by the members of the Norwegian Storthing and Swedish Rigsdag respectively; these delegations to meet annually, interchangeably in Stockholm and Christiania, each by itself, communication between the two to be conducted in writing. By this measure, Norway's share in foreign affairs would be gained without the least sacrifice of the Union.

Sigurd Ibsen, in his monograph 'Unionen,' advances in support of the Liberal plan of a separate Foreign Ministry the case of the various German kingdoms with their independent diplomatic representation. The German Empire, with its confederation of States under one head, each State having at the same time its own ruler, does not present an analogous case to the Scandinavian Union. Had Norway and Sweden each a separate monarch, with a third ruler as head of the Union, or, rather, confederation, the illustration would be a proper one. The Union Ministry, which is practically the same as that of Austria-Hungary, is objected to by Ibsen on the ground that such an arrangement is possible only when both countries stand on the same footing. But as Sweden, in his opinion, regards Norway as an inferior Power, actually, if not theoretically, under its domination, the proposition of the Conservative party would never be accepted. Objections have been raised in the past by the Swedish Chamber to Norwegian interference in foreign affairs, as being opposed to the spirit of the Swedish Constitution, but if a choice must be made between a separate and a Union Ministry, very few Swedes will hesitate to accept the latter.

We have seen that the organization of a separate consular service for Norway is desirable as serving to promote a better feeling between the two countries. The creation of a separate Foreign Ministry would, in the opinion of many, be quite as undesirable for the opposite reason. Disregarding the danger that might result to the Union, it cannot for an instant be doubted that such a change would excite in Sweden a feeling of distrust and indignation that could not but prove unfortunate for the whole peninsula. The question of the additional expense, which is estimated at 100,000 kroner (say $28,000) per annum, but which would probably be somewhat greater, is of minor importance, and concerns only the Norwegian Parliament. The complications, on the other hand, arising from the presence of two ambassadors, representing one Power, but responsible to two separate parliaments, are of moment to all foreign nations. Diplomatic negotiations have never been characterized by celerity, but even the most fanatical worshipper of red tape

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must pause before the possibilities of delay presented by such an organization. Mr. Ibsen discreetly avoids this difficulty, confining himself to the advantages offered by the change. It is perfectly true, as he asserts, that the vast majority of diplomatic and consular questions do not concern both kingdoms, and that these can be disposed of by one of the ministers without reference; but what of the more important questions that concern the two countries in common? In Germany such matters are referred to the Imperial Ministry. What will be done by the double Scandinavian Ministry? Either it must be regarded as a sort of Siamese twins, having no power to act apart, or the one of its members must act as spokesman at the expense of the other. The first plan, though possibly satisfactory to the home governments, would hardly be approved by the foreign Power or Powers interested; the latter, if accepted abroad, would lead to infinite confusion and distrust at home.

The results of the fall elections will indicate the Norwegian policy for the ensuing winter. Without a two-thirds majority in the Storthing, Steen is powerless to act. Of a compromise between the two parties there is at present not the slightest probability, and of a voluntary concession on the part of Sweden there seems as little likelihood. Eventually the Norwegian people will, without doubt, declare emphatically in favor of one plan or the other.

DANIEL KILHAM DODGE.

## UTRECHT IN RED, WHITE, AND BLUE.

UTRECHT, June 30, 1891.

Of the four universities of Holland, that of Utrecht is not the oldest, but in the opinion of the people of this city it is the most important. The pride they take in their "Academia" shows itself not only in the million or so of square yards of bunting which to-day garnishes all dwellings, but in solid financial support. The 500 students who form the undergraduate corps of to-day's merry-makers have been reinforced by hundreds of old alumni. These, with happy faces and plenty of beer and reminiscences, lead in the joyful celebration of the 255th anniversary of the foundation of the University, and of the 55th "lustrum," or costume-festival, which in Utrecht is as much an institution as the canals or cathedral tower.

To celebrate properly the feast, the tricolor flag—containing the same colors as those in the American national emblem and in their order—has been multiplied into millions. Not only are miles of streets hung with it in colossal size, but streamers, festoons, floral devices, the arrangements of products and fruits in the shop windows repeat it. The plumbers have been busy for weeks, and perforated gas-pipe, making figures of manifold form, awaits only the advent of darkness, at nine o'clock this evening, to blossom into fire. The principal streets have been turned into arcades of greenery, along which hang lines of glass cups the size of an ordinary tumbler. These, half filled with wax and containing a taper-wick, will furnish the major part of the illumination. The favorite devices, apart from the large special figures furnished by the popular retail stores on their fronts, are the University shield, the figures 1636-1891, the motto *Vivat Academia*, and, in a thousand varied forms, the shining sun of Utrecht. The outraying of this luminary lends itself finely to mechanical ingenuity and artistic effect. Especially prominent is the University motto, *Sol justitiae illustra nos.*

With three other fellow-Americans we visited in the morning the unpretending edifice of the University, which is connected with the Dom Kerk, or cathedral, by beautiful cloisters. These latter are now in process of restoration, and the exquisite sculptures tell in stone the story of Christianity in the Netherlands. The conquest of Frisian heathenism by the monks of Ireland and Rome is a touching one, and the sculptor has here found a congenial field for his trained powers. In the University itself, apart from the oratory or chapel, the chief interest to the tourist, especially if he be an American, lies in the Senate chamber. Like that of Leyden, the walls of this room are hung from wainscot to ceiling with portraits of illustrious men whose name and fame adorn this seat of learning. Among others that compelled our attention was one of Voetius, the great theologian, who sat to Rembrandt for his striking picture. Another, in fresher tints, was of the late Prof. Donders (whose influence in Holland rivals, if indeed it does not excel, that of Kuenen), and was painted by his wife. More than the portraits, inspiring though they are, does the event of January 29, 1579, rouse the historic memory and touch the imagination. Until 1593 Utrecht was the capital of the seven united provinces that dared the might of Spain. It was not until that year that the States-General, or national Congress, adjourned its sittings to The Hague. Here, in this room, in 1579, the delegates, under the presidency of Count John of Nassau, brother of William the Silent, signed the famous Union of Utrecht. Despite the fact that Philip II. was in it recognized as their sovereign, this document was really the written constitution of the Netherlands republic. It was only two years later that the States declared themselves a free and independent republic, to be finally recognized as such by Spain. It must have seemed like a David defying a Goliath for a little people of less than three millions of souls, with a country whose area scarcely equals half of South Carolina, thus to brave the might of the strongest nation in Europe. Yet these traders and sailors, whose home was a half-drained morass, dared the Power that had the finest infantry in Europe and the silver mines of Mexico and Peru at its back. Knowing that in union there was strength —"Concordia parvae crescunt" (By concord little things become great) was their way of putting it—they made in this room what was for two centuries referred to as the written Constitution and the supreme law of the land. Motley does, indeed, point out its defects, mainly with the idea of showing how inferior to the Constitution of the United States of America this instrument was, and rightly so. Nevertheless, this written compact of confederated States had, both as text and example, a mighty influence on all subsequent federal governments and written constitutions. Whether on the men who, after receiving a political education of nearly twelve years in the Netherlands, wrote in the cabin of the *Mayflower*, or on those whose writings before, during, and after 1787 show thorough acquaintance with Dutch political history, the example of the little patrician republic was powerful. Franklin explicitly declared that Holland was "our great example."

Other suggestions of influence upon American men and institutions were not lacking, as we stood in this historic room. One has but to compare the motto of the Utrecht University with that of Rutgers College in New Jersey to recognize this. "Sol justitiae illustra nos," and "Sol justitiae et occidentem illustra," are too much alike, with appropriate difference, not to suggest the borrowing of one from the other. The motto of the Utrecht school, adopted a generation after its founding, "Sun of justice, shine on us," is altered in America to "Sun of justice, illuminate also the West." Whence and how came the Rutgers motto? The mystery is not great to any alumnus of the American college who knows also the history of the people of the Reformed (Dutch) Church in America, who founded the College first called Queen's College at New Brunswick. The Rev. John H. Livingston, D.D., a scion of the great New York family of that illustrious name, was the peacemaker who healed the dissensions and united all parties in the Reformed Church. With Romeyn and Westerloo, he gave the Reformed Church in America its excellent written constitution, which is but slightly altered to this day, and he studied at Utrecht. When the centennial anniversary of the Theological Seminary at New Brunswick—which claims to be the oldest in America—was celebrated some years ago, Utrecht sent letters of greeting to her younger sister school in America, calling attention to the fact, and with pride, too, that Livingston had studied under predecessors of Donders and Doedes (who is still living) in Utrecht. Dr. Livingston had but to suggest a slight modification of the Utrecht motto, and Rutgers College, chartered and organized before 1770, had her appropriate motto, and her sons have yet an inspiring ancestral prayer.

The festivities of the *lustrum feesten* last a whole week, but this Tuesday, the last day in June, is the day of days. The two railways began early to pour their crowds into the city. Even the approaching visit of the German Emperor seems not to have distracted attention from Utrecht. Besides social reunions of all sorts, and musical attractions and manifold spectacles at the Tivoli gardens during the week, the costume-parade and illumination reveal the special characteristics of a Dutch celebration. The battle of St. Quentin (a town on the road from Mons to Paris) may be said to have marked the beginning of the Dutch war of independence, and in it both Spanish and French as well as Netherlanders participated. To represent the various illustrious men, as well as the costume of their time, was the ambition of the Utrecht students and the purpose of the brilliant display. From two until seven P. M., and again in the evening from eight until ten, the dazzling masquerade delighted a half-million spectators. The gorgeous colors, the shining silk, rich velvet, slashed sleeves, and jaunty plumed caps forcibly reminded one of the days when men, as well as women, wore rich and picturesque garments—in a word, when males arrayed themselves as much for effect upon the eye as females do in our generation. To behold the living effigies of William the Silent, Counts Egmont and Horn, Spanish colonels and English noblemen, riding gayly in splendid array and on superb horses, did indeed quicken the imagination. Nevertheless, the interruption of chronological order by so many eye-glasses was painful. A *pince-nez* is an anachronism, yet many of these sixteenth-century knights carried one astride the nose. Even among the men-at-arms who went afoot, these modern inventions were numerous. As in the days of old, the eyes of fair virgins rained influence, and approving dowagers wafted smiles and flowers from the upper windows of the houses. At night the city blossomed with fire. Although we were nearly crushed in the crowds, we found the natives good-natured and happy, with no disputes or quarrelling.

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Despite the efforts of those who strenuously wish to consolidate the four universities of Holland into one—a purpose in which it is said the ultra-Calvinists and Roman Catholics are politically united—Utrecht may possibly celebrate another 255th anniversary. About the first of October this year the Queen will attend the laying of the corner-stone of the new University buildings. These are to be erected between the old edifice and the eastern nave, that part of the great church left after the destructive hurricane of 1674, and the lofty tower which, standing alone, is a landmark to four provinces. The money for the elegant new edifice has been raised by private subscription in Utrecht.

The recent elections, which show a pronounced Liberal victory, will compel the resignation of the Ministry, but until the visit of the German Kaiser is an event of the past, nothing will be done. For the present the political coalition of the ultra-Protestants and Roman Catholics against the Liberals is dissolved, and the usual recrimination indulged in by uncongenial allies when defeated is the order of the day. The large cities have in every case elected Liberals, the country districts supplying the anti-revolutionary and Ultramontane members. The general meaning is that Holland is entering more fully into the spirit and forms of that modern life which her heroic struggle in the eighty years' war did so much to create. W. E. G.

## MARBOT IN THE PENINSULAR WAR.

PARIS, July 8, 1891.

THE publication of the Memoirs of Gen. Marbot is quite an event; the first volume has been read with avidity, and it may be said that these Memoirs will remain one of the most important documents concerning the First Empire. They have a savor, a sincerity, an originality, which is truly delightful. Who said that "the pen is mightier than the sword"? As a soldier, Marbot certainly played his part well, but his fame was cast into the shade by that of the great marshals of Napoleon whom he attended on so many battle-fields; as a writer, as an historian, he is now above par; none of the companions of the great Emperor has left us anything that can compare with his Memoirs.

The second volume, which has just appeared, is as interesting as the first. It begins with the account of Junot's expedition to Lisbon and of the intrigues of Napoleon, who profited by the division of the royal family of Spain, with a view to finally conquering the peninsula. The expedition against Portugal was a blow to England. Marbot considers that Napoleon was wrong in giving Junot the command of the army which invaded Portugal:

"The army saw in Junot a very brave soldier rather than a true captain. The first time I saw him I was struck and disquieted by the wildness of his eyes; his end justified my apprehensions. The origin of his fortune is known: a simple *fourrier* in the battalion of the Côte d'Or, he gained by a bon-mot the affection of the captain of artillery, Bonaparte, during the siege of Toulon. He followed Bonaparte to Egypt, became commander in Paris and ambassador to Lisbon. His gayety, his frankness, his reputation for courage, his prodigality, won him the friendship of the great and the sympathy of the masses. His success in Portugal, probably, determined the Emperor to choose him for the command of the army of occupation."

Junot was very imprudent. His only idea was to push his army forward, and nothing was ready to receive it. The French troops suffered much from hunger, but Napoleon's object was gained. Junot's vanguard threw Lisbon into great confusion. The regent, the Queen (who was out of her mind), the royal family, and a number of great families embarked on a fleet, and on the 28th of November, 1807, left for Brazil.

Marbot describes very well the state of Spain during these events—the insolent domination of Godoy, the Prince of Peace, the Queen's favorite; the division between King Charles IV., who thought of nothing but hunting, and his son Ferdinand, Prince of Asturias, who had conceived a very natural hatred of Godoy. The Spaniards, as a nation, sided with the son, who was persecuted by the favorite. Napoleon was concentrating a great army in order to profit by these divisions. In January, 1808, Marbot was appointed aide-de-camp to Murat and joined him at Bayonne. Murat entered Spain on March 10, 1808. The Spaniards, thinking that Napoleon wished to protect the Prince of Asturias, made no opposition. The King was preparing to fly with the Queen and Godoy; but, when the populace saw the furniture and the Treasury silver packed, a revolution broke out at Aranjuez. The Prince of Asturias was made King, after the forced abdication of Charles, and Godoy was thrown into prison. Murat entered Madrid on March 23. Hearing that Godoy was going to be brought to the capital, and fearing that he would be murdered by the mob, Murat sent Marbot on the road to Aranjuez to protect him. "I met Godoy two leagues from Madrid. Though this unfortunate man was horribly wounded and covered with blood, the body-guards who escorted him had put him in irons, and tied him in a miserable open van, where he was exposed to the burning rays of the sun and to thousands of flies drawn by the blood of his wounds, half covered only by rags. . . . This spectacle made me indignant, and I saw with pleasure that it produced the same effect on the French squadron which accompanied me." Marbot stopped the march of the little Spanish troop, and thus probably saved the life of Godoy.

Ferdinand VII. made his entry into Madrid on March 24. The people were delirious with joy. The French looked on this spectacle, but Murat did not even call upon the new King, being still ignorant what were the intentions of Napoleon—whether he would recognize Ferdinand or not. Ferdinand became uneasy, and asked the Ambassador, M. de Beauharnais, for advice. "Beauharnais, whose honesty was incapable of conceiving the thought that Napoleon could interfere with the liberty of a Prince who applied to him as an arbiter, advised him to approach the Emperor, who was expected at Bayonne. Ferdinand hesitated, but, hearing that his father and mother were going to Bayonne to plead their own cause, and receiving through Savary, who arrived suddenly at Madrid, letters from Napoleon himself, he decided to go." Napoleon, meanwhile, was advancing slowly on the road to Bayonne "in order to give time for events to prepare themselves." There is something in this last sentence which makes one think of Tacitus.

What followed is well known. Ferdinand left Bayonne, and found himself a prisoner in France. The insurrection of Madrid was the answer of the Spanish people to Napoleon. Marbot ran great danger in it; Murat quelled it with the greatest severity, but he himself felt that he could not, as he had wished, become King of Spain. "As a soldier," says Marbot, "I had fought against those who attacked the French Army; but I could not help recognizing inwardly that our cause was bad, and that the Spaniards were right in trying to expel foreigners who, having come among them as friends, now tried to dethrone their sovereign and to seize their kingdom by force. This war seemed to me impious."

Murat sent Marbot to Napoleon to announce to him the insurrection of Madrid. He accomplished his perilous mission with great celerity, and found Napoleon with the Queen and King of Spain. Napoleon put him many questions; Marbot did not hesitate to paint in the strongest colors the wrath of the Spaniards, the ferocious courage of the population, even of the women. Napoleon interrupted him: "Pooh! pooh! they will calm themselves and bless me when they see their country emerge from the opprobrium and disorder into which it has been thrown by the weakest and most corrupt administration that ever existed." The next day Ferdinand resigned his crown into the hands of his father, and his father abandoned to Napoleon all his rights to the Spanish crown in exchange for the château and forest of Compiègne and an income of seven and a half millions. Ferdinand received the château of Navarre in Normandy and an income of a million. Napoleon gave the crown of Spain to his brother Joseph. Marbot does not hesitate to condemn Napoleon severely: "The conduct of Napoleon in this scandalous affair was unworthy of a great man like him. To offer his mediation between the father and the son so as to draw them into a trap and then have them despoil each other, was an atrocity, an odious act, which history has condemned and Providence punished, as it was the Spanish war which prepared and brought about the fall of Napoleon."

The choice of Joseph was a mistake: a timid, lazy man, fond of art, a voluptuary. Murat would have done better. He had been very popular at first, but, after the bloody repression of the insurrection of Madrid, Napoleon thought him impossible, and sent him to Naples to take the place of Joseph. As Béranger said:

> "Un conquérant, dans sa fortune altière,
> Se fit un jeu des sceptres et des lois,
> Et de ses pieds l'on peut voir la poussière
> Empreinte encore sur le bandeau des rois."

Spain rose like one man against the French. After the capitulation of Baylen, where Gen. Dupont surrendered with a whole corps-d'armée, Napoleon diverted immense forces against the peninsula. Augereau asked Marshal Lannes, who was given a command in Spain, to take Marbot on his staff; before his departure Marbot was decorated with the Legion of Honor by the hand of Napoleon. "It was the 29th of October, 1808. It was one of the best days of my life, for then the Legion of Honor had not yet been bestowed with prodigality. . . . No promotion ever gave me such joy. What brought my satisfaction to its climax was the fact that Duroc sent for my cocked hat, in which a cannon ball had made a hole at the battle of Eylau. Napoleon wished to see it." (This hat is still preserved by Marbot's family.)

The Emperor himself took command, and fought the battle of Burgos on the 9th of November, 1808. Lannes gained a great victory at Tudela, and charged Marbot with the difficult mission of carrying the news to the Emperor. "The service of the aides-de-camp of the marshals was terrible in Spain. . . . I don't think I exaggerate in saying that two hundred officers of the general staff were killed or wounded during the Peninsular war, from 1808 to 1814." Marbot left Tudela on the 24th of November; he tried to cross the mountains, but he was attacked in a village, escaped miraculously, and had to fall back on Lannes's

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vanguard. The account of his adventures in this expedition must be read in the book itself, as all the details are essential. It is certain that Marbot must have had a charmed life; it is hardly credible that he could have come out alive from the mountains of Soria.

The Spanish campaign of Napoleon was marked by terrible trials. Marbot saw the storming of Somosierra by the Polish cavalry ("the Poles," he says, "have but one quality, but they possess it in a supreme degree: they are very brave"); the crossing of the Guadarrama in the snow. At Benavente, a regiment of the Imperial Guard was defeated by Gen. Moore, and the Colonel, Lefèvre-Desnouettes, was made prisoner and sent to England as a trophy. Napoleon was recalled to France, and returned with his guard, leaving the army on its way to Saragossa under Lannes. The heroic defence of this town is well known. Marbot was wounded during the siege, but fortunately the surgeon was able to find and to extract an extraordinary ball, very large, hammered to the shape of a guinea, with a cross engraved on each side, and cuttings on the edge which gave it the shape of a wheel. Marbot was rapidly cured; his constitution seems to have been of iron.

Palafox has all the credit of the defence of Saragossa, but Marbot says that he contributed little to it, having been seriously ill from the first days of the siege. He was obliged to give the command to Gen. Saint-Marc, a Belgian in the service of Spain, but as Saint-Marc was a foreigner, Spanish pride invested Palafox with all the glory of the defence. Forty thousand men surrendered at Saragossa; they were taken to France as prisoners of war, but two-thirds made their escape during the march to the Pyrenees, and took arms again. Palafox received exceptional treatment in the capitulation; as he had taken the oath to King Joseph, Napoleon had him treated as a prisoner of state. Albuquerque, one of his friends, had to announce his fate to him. Palafox gave him his sword, saying: "If your ancestors, the illustrious Albuquerques, could come back to life, they would all prefer the place of the prisoner who delivers this sword, to that of the renegade who comes to take it in the name of the enemies of Spain, his country." Fine words, which have a savor of Plutarch's heroes.

# Correspondence.

## CREED MORALS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With your usual frankness and courtesy, you will allow space, doubtless, for a criticism of your attitude regarding the present ecclesiastical discussions. As a constant reader of the *Nation*, I may say that what I value most in it is its fearless ethical teaching. But in this instance its moral analysis seems to me defective. This defect is betrayed in the very title of its article in the issue of July 9—"A *Plain* Moral Question." The moral question cannot be called plain, except upon the basis of two assumptions—one, the fixity or definiteness of a church's creed; the other, the definiteness of the individual clergyman's belief. Both of these must be denied in the cases under discussion. They are both impossible, except as theoretical data. It is not a matter of choice whether or no a man shall believe and repeat a creed exactly in the sense of its framers. It is an impossibility that he should do so from the changed conditions of life and thought. The same variability must exist between localities, or congregations, or individuals. The total apprehension of the Church changes from generation to generation, and the individual apprehension of the man from year to year, if both church and man are alive.

This is not only desirable, but is the true intention in both church and creed. A creed (any creed) in its origin is, *as a test*, an expression of loyalty to Christ; *as a doctrinal statement*, a challenge and incentive to a true understanding of him. The creed is diverted from its intention, and becomes a dead creed, when its value as a test is held to be that it is a final expression of the truth. In this way it happens that those who dissent from this last position are not really disbelievers, but the true believers in a live creed and in a living church.

In the position taken by the *Nation*, the alternative is either to cease thinking, and accept a church's statement, or else, if thinking is continued, to found a sect, even if it be a sect of one. But the day of this alternative is passed. The liberty of conscience is established, and a man may think as he likes and found his sect if he will. The problem is rather, *not* to found it. The struggle to-day is not for the individual's, but for the church's, liberty. It is easy to give over thinking and to accede to the formula of a sect, and it is likewise easy to throw over the creed of the sect and to set up the sect of one. The problem to excite moral enthusiasm is to remain true not to the sect, but to the church within the sect, and to struggle for the realization of the church idea.

The elements neglected, then, in the *Nation's* analysis of the moral conditions under consideration are, negatively, the impossibility of an authoritative definition of creed allegiance, and, positively, the moral courage and enthusiasm awakened by the desire for the Church's enfranchisement.

John W. Suter.

Andover, Maine, July 14, 1891.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your recent editorial, "A Plain Moral Question," which concerns the indefensibility of a clergyman's persisting in membership of a sect the dogmas of which he questions, your argument would be sounder if churches would abandon the assumption which alone gives them authority over the conscience. If a church be a mere ethical or intellectual club, the bond of which is a contract to stick to a formula, then when a member is disloyal to that covenant, he has broken the bond and should "step down and out." This is the view that the secular courts, and the ecclesiastical ones too, would take; only, when the ecclesiastical court so adjudicates it stultifies itself. In canon law a condemnation for heresy does not put a man out of the Church, and theoretically it ought not. It only disciplines him, and regards him as an errant member, until it excommunicates him "with bell, book, and candle"; and excommunication is vastly more than excision from a society, for it pronounces on a man's relations to God, and theoretically consigns him to hell. Churchmen once acted consistently on this principle, and punished heretical members as its own recalcitrant children. It is folly to say that this was mediævalism, for every denomination which claims the character of a church implicitly sets up the same assumptions. Thus far, wherever any denomination had the power, it has acted upon them, and probably would again if it could enforce its jurisdiction.

I take these assumptions to be necessary to and inherent in the idea of a church. Such a body claims to be of divine origin and entitled to jurisdiction spiritually over its members. It does not appeal for adherents primarily on the ground of acceptance of a creed, but because it is the Kingdom of God, equipped with authority to administer its affairs in God's name and behalf, and it is the duty of men to join it under divine command—a duty which one neglects to the eternal peril of one's soul. Every denomination insists that it is more than an ethical association, even the custodian of grace and sacraments generally necessary to salvation. Each claims an organic succession of some kind from the days of the Apostles. If it would not accept a man who refused approval of its particular confession, much less would it receive a man who declared that he would teach that creed when he ceased to believe it, or who clouded with doubt his intellectual righteousness.

Now, what is the relation of such a body to a creed? Clearly, the body existed before the creed, and its confessions of faith are every one incidents of its growth, symbols of its development. There was a time, before each confession took shape, when the very promoters of the coming formula were disloyal to the preëxistent covenant, and were seeking to change the bond of union. There was no "dead-hand" then in control. A right to make development is involved in the doctrine held by every Christian sect that it has the power to alter its formulas. I am at a loss to see where the immorality lies in the conduct of a clergyman who exercises his prescriptive right to modify his church confessions, as every generation of conservatives and radicals have been doing for 1,800 years, and who throws upon his church the burden of trying and expelling him. That burden is but a small thing compared with the immense good that results to the Church from just such efforts to define or purify itself. Despite all their turmoil and exasperation, the benefits are permanent and great to the general body. Thus, the Presbyterian denomination is more tolerant and scholarly to-day for driving out Albert Barnes and Dr. Beman and retrieving that false step a generation later. That man always does the best service who is truest to his growing convictions, who fights for them in the associations where he formed them, and who bears manfully his defeat.

From the point of ecclesiastical pretension I conceive a member's relation to his church to be like that of a citizen to the State. Indeed, it is only of very recent years that even Protestant denominations have ceased to strive for secular jurisdiction. The Commonwealth of England was preëminently an effort to transfer State power from one sect to another. The analogy between the Church in its sphere and the State in its not only is complete, but it runs through all church polity and all legislation from the times when bishops usurped the functions of Rome's imperial magistrates. Now, who would contend that a citizen ought to emigrate from the State as soon as "he announces his contempt for the whole system" of its laws and government? He does this at his peril. Neither in a secular nor in an ecclesiastical court will his plea of mental dissonance avail, as it did not Herr Most; and in either tribunal the man whose defence is overruled must take the penalty. But his right to contend for his opinions, to work for revolution, and to put upon the State the burden of restraining him, cannot be questioned either in morals or in its beneficent results upon liberty and progress.

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If this contention, which is, be it remembered, from the basis of church pretensions, cannot be maintained, does it not follow that the church idea has vanished? Then there is no divine society: denominations are only voluntary clubs. Practically this is what in the outside public judgment they are now, and the heresy-hunting epidemic tends to make them such more and more in their own estimation. I do not object to the process, but only wish, with what force is at my command, to call attention to the stultification of the church idea involved in the claim that a man ought to leave his sect when he dissents from its standards. D. O. KELLOGG.

VINELAND, N. J., July 11, 1891.

## RELIGIOUS FREEDOM IN AUSTRIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Supreme Court of Austria rendered a decision yesterday of more than local interest. The question at issue was that of the right of one who had taken the vows of celibacy in the Catholic Church to marry after he had gone over to the Protestants. Not only the Supreme Court, but both the lower courts which tried the case, decided against such a right.

The main points of the case are these: In 1870 one Knaus, a priest, who had thirteen years before joined a celibate order, renounced the Catholic faith and joined the Protestant church. He gave legal notice of the fact to the officials of the State. In 1879 he married a school-teacher, with whom he lived unmolested for eleven years. Then some one brought suit for the annulling of the marriage on the ground of incapability. The marriage law not only declares a marriage void when the contracting parties fail to notify the officiating minister of any fact which would render the parties incapable of marriage, but makes the withholding of such knowledge a crime.

In annulling the marriage, the District Court said the civil law recognized the Catholic Church, with its right to make disciplinary regulations for its subjects, and that there could be no doubt that "it lay in the interest of public order and morals" to support the legal discipline of the Church; that this Church, having the right to make rules binding on those who voluntarily placed themselves under its care, did not recognize the right of arbitrarily forsaking it, or of leaving its priesthood at will, or of renouncing, at pleasure, solemn vows.

The defendant pleaded that he held back nothing at the marriage which could have influenced the officiating clergyman, because no Protestant recognized these vows as binding on one who had left the Catholic Church; that if the civil law recognized the right of the Catholic Church to make such far-reaching disciplinary rules, that law was unconstitutional, for the Constitution (Article 14) expressly says: "Full freedom of faith and conscience is guaranteed to every subject, and the enjoyment of civil and political rights is declared to be independent of religious confession." Therefore, Knaus claimed that, having legally left the Catholic Church, he had no claims on it, and, therefore, could have no duties towards it. The Supreme Court said that it could not go into questions of denominational creeds and hairsplitting, but must leave that for the Legislature; that the marriage law forbade certain classes of persons to marry, and that the defendant, by voluntarily entering one of these classes, subjected himself to all the disabilities of the members of that class. Furthermore, the statutes of these orders being recognized as lawful, the defendant could sever his connection with the order only in accordance with the statutes of the order itself. Therefore, the constitutional argument was declared invalid.

Such is the interpretation the highest court gives to the meaning of freedom of faith and worship in Austria. Many similar suits are expected on the strength of this decision. The Catholic Church has thus been given a power that its most ardent disciple could scarcely have hoped for. Now the Church that holds the ignorant by threats of eternal punishment may hope to control its educated priesthood by the power of the civil courts.

JOHN H. GRAY.

VIENNA, July 3, 1891.

## MATERIAL PROSPERITY IN IRELAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the lively concern most of us in this country have in Ireland, it may be of interest to your readers to know that Dr. Grimshaw, Registrar-General for Ireland, three weeks ago read a paper on "Irish Progress" at a meeting of the Statistical and Social Inquiry of Ireland, in which he stated that emigration was gradually decreasing, from 109,000 in 1883 to 61,000 in 1890. He pointed out that the ratable valuation of the country has been increased by the growth of towns of over 10,000 inhabitants. The great feature in Irish agriculture, Dr. Grimshaw remarked, is the steady progress in the conversion of tillage farming into stock farming, while there has been a corresponding increase of agricultural wealth. Horses have increased by 37,000, and sheep by 1,067,000, or 32 8 per cent. In respect to manufactures, power-looms for linen manufacture have increased by 22.1 per cent., while the railway receipts show an increase of 17.7 per cent. With regard to bank deposits, during the first five years of the decade the annual average of joint-stock bank deposits and cash balances was £30,849,000, and during the last five years £31,443,000.

Considering the agrarian agitation and political situation of the last few years, Dr. Grimshaw is of the opinion that Ireland has progressed favorably in material prosperity during the past decade. C. A. S.

NEWPORT, R. I.

## PROFESSOR HARRINGTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your editorial in the *Nation* of July 9, apropos of Professor Nipher, might be construed as a reflection, unintentional of course, upon the appointee, Mark W. Harrington, Professor of Astronomy in the University of Michigan, who is referred to simply as "Mr." I had the privilege of Professor Harrington's instruction at the University nearly twenty years ago. At that time he was already a devotee of science, and had done important services for the Government in that capacity. Whatever Professor Nipher's qualifications or separation from politics, I am sure Professor Harrington can suffer nothing personally by comparison.—Very truly yours,

CHARLES E. LOWREY.

BOULDER, COL., July 13, 1891.

[We did not intend any such reflection, having had the literary collaboration of Professor Harrington in times past—a fact which we presume we can state without injuring his standing with the present Administration.—ED. NATION.]

# Notes.

THE 'American Catalogue' for 1884-'90 is now complete so far as the author-and-title alphabet is concerned, having been issued in two parts from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly*. The work gives evidence of the steady increase of the output of books. The nearly 600 pages now available for reference will be supplemented in the fall by a subject alphabet for which 400 pages will be required. There are also to be several appendices, and, in fact, one—a list of United States Government publications for the above-named period—is already off the press. It has been compiled by Mr. J. H. Hickcox, under the editorial direction of Mr. R. R. Bowker, who vouches for it as being "absolutely complete and correct, as far as [in]fallibility is possible in this fallible world," thanks to the coöperation of Government officers in the several departments, with one narrow-minded exception. Other appendices promised are State Publications, "a new and important feature"; Publications of Literary and Scientific Societies; and Books Published in Series. Thus this invaluable record is made still more a work to be proud of.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready several works of fiction—'Dally,' by Maria Louise Pool; 'The Uncle of an Angel, and Other Stories,' by Thomas A. Janvier; 'A Man's Conscience,' by Avery Macalpine; and 'Tales of Two Countries,' from the Swedish of Alexander Kielland, by William Archer.

D. Appleton & Co. announce 'Maid Marian, and Other Stories,' by Miss Molly Elliot Seawell, and 'Adopting an Abandoned Farm,' by Miss Kate Sanborn.

Bacon's 'Advancement of Learning,' edited by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale, is in the press of Ginn & Co., Boston, as is also 'Duty: A Book for Schools,' by Prof. Julius H. Seelye.

John W. Lovell Co. will shortly issue the first volume of a complete translation of Heine's works from the pen of Charles G. Leland; and 'The Little Manx Nation,' an historical and sociological account of the Isle of Man, by Mr. Hall Caine.

We are requested to state that Mr. James R. Gilmore ("Edmund Kirke") has withdrawn from the editorial management of the 'National Encyclopædia of American Biography' now in preparation by James T. White & Co.

The 'Cyclopædia of the Manufactures and Products of the United States' (New York: The Seeger & Guernsey Company) is about to be issued in a new and enlarged form. The work has undergone thorough revision, and, though classified, will have a general index, covering nearly 50,000 articles.

Mrs. Caroline E. Upham has condensed into a little volume, called 'Salem Witchcraft in Outline' (Salem Press and Publishing Co.), the story which has been told at length by her late father-in-law in his standard volumes. Without marked qualifications for this task, she has nevertheless made a narrative that will impress the reader who comes to it ignorant of the subject. Views and autographic facsimiles have been borrowed from the larger work.

Not long since, Pastor Ziegler of Liegnitz in Silesia published a work entitled 'The Historic Christ.' The volume contains no new investigations, but simply gives a clear and consecu-

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tive statement of the results at which scholarly research and sober criticism have arrived on this subject, and endeavors to turn them into the channel of religious instruction. The conscientious clergyman was of the opinion that the expounder of divine truth should keep his mind open to the light and never lose the courage of his convictions; and that the people whom he was appointed to instruct in religious things ought to have the benefit of any increase of knowledge which he might have acquired. These views, however, were not shared by many of his brethren, who instigated the provincial consistory to proceed against him for heresy with the intention of depriving him of his office. Fortunately, the Oberkirchenrath, or supreme ecclesiastical council, of Prussia interposed and ordered the proceedings to be stopped, and thus saved one of the most active, honest, and intelligent of Prussian pastors from infinite annoyance, if not from actual suspension from his benefice.

'Richard Wagner,' by Dr. Franz Muncker, Professor of Literature in the University of Munich, is the latest addition to the "Bayerische Bibliothek" (Bamberg: Buchner), and forms the twenty-sixth volume of this series of biographies of Bavarian worthies. Prof. Muncker is the son of the burgomaster of Bayreuth and an enthusiastic Wagnerite. To an historical sketch and careful critical analysis of Wagner's works he adds an interesting account of the origin and development and artistic purpose of the Bayreuth "Bühnenfestspiele," with a plan of the theatre and the stage arrangements, and colored illustrations of the decorations used in representations of the "Nibelungenring" and "Parsifal." There are also several portraits of the composer, taken at different periods of his life, and giving a sort of chronological survey of his facial and physical transformations, together with views of the various houses in which he dwelt. Pilgrims to the Mecca of Wagnerism during the present summer will find this book an inspiring guide and valuable aid to their devotions, and the very moderate price (one mark and sixty pfennigs, or forty cents) puts it within the reach of every one, and ought to insure it a large sale. The volume has no index and not even a table of contents.

Travellers in Egypt will find 'Sketches from a Nile Steamer,' by H. M. and N. Tirard (London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.), a valuable handbook. The principal points of interest as far south as Abu-Simbel are described simply but intelligently, and with not too much enthusiasm. The temples and tombs, and the best methods of seeing them, of course take up the most of the book, but there are not wanting charming pictures of the daily life of the modern Egyptian, which cannot fail to interest the general reader. The closing chapter is upon Cairo, in which there is an unusually good, though brief, account of the scholars at the great mosque El-Azhar. There is an excellent index and several plans and illustrations from original drawings.

'The Arab and African,' by S. Tristram Pruen (London: Seeley & Co.), is an admirable sketch of Eastern Equatorial Africa and its inhabitants. A general description of the country is followed by a graphic picture of the daily life and employments of the negro, and a most interesting account of the incidents which accompany the day's march of a caravan. The author, who writes from an experience of three years' work among them as a medical missionary, gives an unusually favorable character to both African and Arab. The former is frequently very industrious, and can, if taken young, be trained to habits of industry, and is "quite decent in his outward behavior." The traveller, he says, will "never see an improper gesture, if careful of propriety himself." The Arab he commends for his honesty, courtesy, and sincerity in matters relating to his faith, while he defends him from some of the charges made ignorantly against him. The extent of the slave trade, of which he writes very soberly and suggestively, is indicated by the fact that during a twelvemonth which he spent at Mpwapwa, a place where many trade routes come together, 200 caravans passed through, numbering some 30,000 souls. There are many valuable hints as to the diet and manner of living for the preservation of the health, and an exhaustive list of the stores essential for a year's sojourn in the interior.

There is a certain degree of freshness about 'Alone through Syria,' by Ellen E. Miller (London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.), which makes it for the most part very agreeable reading. The book is noteworthy, also, as showing that a lady can travel through Palestine, west of the Jordan, safely and comfortably, unaccompanied save by a dragoman. Miss Miller was not only more independent in her movements, but she saw far more of the life of the people than if she had been one of a large party. This, as well as the various little unusual incidents of her day's journey, she pictures with considerable ability, and wisely avoids detailed descriptions of well-known scenes and places. At the Church of the Holy Sepulchre she was witness to one of the amenities which distinguish the intercourse between the Greek and Latin Christians in Jerusalem. During a procession of the Franciscans, a Greek priest threw an inkhorn at the head of the Superior, but fortunately missed him. Especially interesting is the account of the home of a married Maronite (Catholic) priest in a little northern Syrian village where Miss Miller passed a night. In Syria she did not leave the beaten track of the tourists, but before entering the country she passed some time in Egypt, and devotes several entertaining chapters to sketches of Cairo, Luxor, and the region about Suez. The illustrations, from photographs, are well chosen and good.

'The Birds of Manitoba,' by Ernest E. Thompson, from the Proceedings of the United States National Museum, vol. xiii, pp. 457-643, is a paper of considerable importance to ornithologists. The list includes the names of 266 species, each accompanied by more or less numerous citations of localities and authorities. A large number of accurate and well-written notes on habits, captures, etc., gives the work an exceptional value and interest.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for May is wholly occupied with Mr. Israel C. Russell's narrative of an expedition to Mount St. Elias, Alaska, last year. It is preceded by a summary of previous explorations of this attractive mountain mass, and is accompanied by a large number of maps and photographic views. The author's style is spirited and popular and his account deeply interesting. It is to be hoped that he will have the good fortune to succeed in reaching the summit in some future expedition.

The Sargasso Sea is the subject of a paper contributed to *Petermann's Mitteilungen* by Prof. O. Krümmel. In it he discusses, with especial reference to Otto Kuntze's botanical theories, the two questions as to the existence of the sea in a fixed and definite position, and the origin of the plants which form its distinguishing characteristic. Though he does not deny the possibility of these plants fructifying in the open sea, he holds that this is very rarely the case, and that the greater part are torn from the neighboring coasts. Dr. Kurt Hassert attempts to define the northern limit of the habited and habitable earth and to show the causes for its changes in historic times. The accompanying map makes very evident the great contrast in this respect between the arctic regions of the Old and the New World. In the former, only two small strips of Siberia and a part of the New Siberian Islands are represented as deserted, while in the latter a large part of the Greenland coast and all the islands and mainland of America between latitudes 75° and 70° were once, but are not now, inhabited. An examination of the results of the last Greek census, taken in 1889, shows that the increase, 11.4 per cent., is chiefly in Attica and the cultivated land about Corinth. The Greeks show the same tendency as the other more civilized peoples to leave the country for the towns, the places containing over 5,000 inhabitants having gained 39 per cent., those under 5,000 only 5 per cent. Athens itself increased 69 per cent., being closely followed by its port with 59 per cent. gain. The great proportion of the people, however, 78 per cent., are still dwellers in the country. The Ionian Islands, with the exception of Corcyra, show a slight decrease.

Benj. R. Tucker, Boston, will publish next Saturday the first number of a new *Weekly Bulletin of Newspaper and Periodical Literature*, being in the main a classified catalogue of important articles in the press of the United States and the British Provinces. Title and author (when known) will be given, and "the number of words in the article." The novelty of this scheme consists in embracing the daily and weekly press.

Howard Lockwood & Co. send us Part 2 of their 'American Dictionary of Printing and Bookmaking.' It extends from Blatt to Chinese Printing, and is, like its predecessor, freely illustrated with technical cuts and with portraits. Bookbinding is one of the longest articles; Capitalizing is also fully treated, with a slant at our friends the librarians, who have a rule against excessive capitalizing. The Campbell press, the Burr type-setting machine, the Bruce founts, figure among our American inventions in these lines; and printers more or less American are commemorated in Samuel Bowles, William Bradford, Simon Cameron, and Mathew Carey, along with Caxton. Boston, Cambridge, and Charleston are examples of towns viewed typographically. Even Thomas Bowdler is regarded as within the scope of this dictionary.

A noteworthy agreement has been reached between the four leading libraries of Salem, Mass., to observe individual lines of purchase with a view to preventing unnecessary duplication of books. Moreover, the librarian of the Public Library is authorized to issue a card, addressed to any of his brother librarians, entitling the bearer to consult any work of reference in the latter's keeping.

Mayence is making extensive preparations to celebrate the centenary of the nativity of Franz Bopp, who was born in that city on September 14, 1791. All the German universities will be represented, and delegations are expected from the principal universities of other countries to do honor to one of the most scholarly pioneers in the province of comparative philology.

Wilhelm Weber, Professor of Physics in the University of Göttingen, died on June 24, in the eighty-seventh year of his age. In 1833 he ran a wire nearly nine thousand feet in length over the houses of Göttingen, and connected his laboratory with the astronomical observatory, of which Gauss was then director. By this means the two scientists were enabled to carry on

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easy and rapid communications with each other, and greatly facilitate the study of magnetic forces and phenomena in which they were engaged. In a letter to the astronomer Olbers, Gauss writes: "I am convinced that by the use of sufficiently strong wires it would be possible to telegraph at one stroke from Göttingen to Hanover and from Hanover to Bremen." But neither of these eminent men ever made any attempt to extend and improve the means of telegraphic communication which they had discovered. Indeed, there is no evidence that they even thought of connecting by telegraph the numerous observatories which, at Humboldt's suggestion, had formed a "magnetic union" for the purpose of pursuing in common the investigations of terrestrial magnetism subsequently published in six volumes under the title 'Resultate aus den Beobachtungen des Magnetischen Vereins' (Göttingen, 1837–1843).

—The deterioration in the character of our legislatures and their legislation in recent years has led to various expedients of a reformatory or palliative nature. In some cases the field exempted from legislative interference by the Constitution has been enlarged; in others, the frequency of legislative sessions has been diminished. Both of these expedients have aroused hostility and received severe criticism, and the case against them has been summed up anew in a paper read by Mr. F. P. Prichard of the Philadelphia bar before the Law Association of that city. The remedy favored by him is the appointment of competent officers charged with the duty of revising and correcting the bills offered in the legislatures before those bodies are allowed to discuss them. That legislation would be improved by the operation of such a commission admits of no doubt, but the physical obstacles are very great, to say nothing of the task of persuading the legislatures to relinquish any of the control they now exercise over their acts. A body of legislative censors once existed in the State of Vermont, but it has passed away, and it is evident that there is some reason why a feature common in the artificial constitutions of philosophers does not appear in the constitutions developed by experience.

—Historical students cannot but welcome the 'Guide to the Principal Classes of Documents Preserved in the Public Record Office' which has just been issued by the British Government. This key to the greatest treasure-house of history is the result of some years of work on the part of Mr. S. R. Scargill-Bird, F.S.A., one of the staff of the Public Record Office, London. The work is prefaced with an Introduction which exhibits the knowledge of a specialist. Then follow the subjects upon which the various documents are likely to be consulted. Being arranged alphabetically, they resolve themselves into an index of contents, beginning with Accounts, Acknowledgments of Deeds, and Agarde's Indexes, and ending with Wards and Minors, Wills (Royal and Private), and Works and Buildings. Under some of the headings will be found valuable notes. Those on this side of the Atlantic who would seek for documents of more personal and direct concern to Americans will find these not only among the vast mass of papers, too barely noted under the head of Colonial Office, on page 87, but under various heads. Thus, under the head of Aliens, are two volumes containing the 'Names of Persons Naturalized in His Majesty's Plantations in America, 1740 to 1761.' Mr. Scargill-Bird says these contain "the names, etc., of those who availed themselves of Act 13, George II., for naturalizing such foreign Protestants and others as are settled or shall settle in any of His Majesty's colonies in America." Under Army, Navy, and Ordnance, are to be found establishment-books of Guards, Garrisons, and Land Forces in Great Britain and the Plantations, from 1741. Under Grants of Land are noted Carolina, 1674 to 1765; New York, 1665 to 1765; To Discoverers in America, from Henry VII.; North Carolina, 1725 to 1760; Georgia, 1760 to 1768; Jamaica, 1754; "List of Landholders; Plantations General," 1752 to 1771. Under the head of the Audit Office, we find Account of the Comptroller-General in Barbados and the Leeward Islands, 1684–1685; and a sub-heading for Accounts of Governors, Agents, etc., includes Cape Breton, from 1746; Carolina, 1776–1779; Florida, East, 1772–1786; Florida, West, 1764–1781; Georgia, 1752–1783; Jamaica, 1660–1675; Nova Scotia, from 1752; Virginia, 1754–1757; West Indies, from 1760. Also, under the head Audit Office, are found Agents' Accounts for purchasing presents, etc., for the Indians in the neighborhood of his Majesty's Colonies in North America, 1755 to 1785; Account of the contractor for victualling the settlers in Nova Scotia, 1740–1751; and Expenses for transporting foreign Protestants from Holland to Nova Scotia, 1751–1753. Under Emigrants is noted a list of emigrants to Nova Scotia, 1748–1749. As the publications by the British Government are made without any view to pecuniary profit, the Handbook is issued at the reasonable price of seven shillings, but a limited number having been printed. No historical society in the United States should be without it.

—The American Jewish Publication Society, which has just issued its third work, the first volume of the new English translation of Graetz's 'History of the Jews,' was organized in Philadelphia in June, 1888, with a view to publishing books on the religion, literature, and history of the Jews, and of fostering original work by American scholars in those subjects. It has branches in a number of the larger cities, with about 3,000 members, and is managed by an executive committee and a publication board. Its previous issues have been Mrs. Magnus's 'Post-Biblical History' and 'Think and Thank,' a story for the young. A special series of brochures has been begun, the first being devoted to a reprint of a pamphlet on the Russian question, to be followed by original and selected papers in Jewish literature and research, akin somewhat in style to *Chambers's Miscellany*. This is not the first attempt to organize a Jewish publication society. One was founded in New York not quite two decades ago, but died after publishing two minor works and the fourth volume of Graetz's History. The present outlook is certainly more auspicious. The Jewish community is larger, there is a better-equipped body of scholars and translators, and the public in general is more interested in Jewish literature, if presented in an appetizing form. Proverbial ill-fortune has invariably overtaken Jewish publication societies in England and Germany, possibly because they have been made to appeal to the learned few rather than the people, and especially to the young. The Philadelphia Publication Committee is in active correspondence with writers abroad and at home for fresh material, and its forthcoming works are likely to prove attractive. Financially the Society is in good condition, and it pays its writers handsomely. It is not at all impossible that should its career continue successful, it may publish a monthly magazine or quarterly upon a solid basis. In reference to the first volume of Graetz, just issued in English, it may be of interest to learn that the editor and chief translator was Miss Lowy of London, daughter of the Rev. A. Lowy, the Oriental scholar who doubted the genuineness of the Moabite Stone.

—Señora Bazán has her say, in her June *Teatro Critico*, upon the "Roman Romanesque Moderne" of M. Prévost, about which so much has lately been said and written in Paris. She thinks that his wonderful idea that the coming novel is to relapse from the reigning realism into romanticism is "an aged idea which yet lends itself with feminine coquetry to the wearing of the red and white paint and false curls" put on by M. Prévost. "Sometimes commonplaces are strokes of genius," and she believes the young writer has aptly expressed the growing sense of revolt at the pessimism and cruelty, as Ohnet calls it, of the prevalent French school.

"Still, schools are a fact, and to deny their existence, or to boast of absolute independence, seems to me the same as to deny the external conditions imposed upon our natures. Nevertheless, in addition to the fact of a general tendency to which we all submit, there is the sacred right of artistic liberty. If anybody knows how to write good romantic novels, let him step at once into the arena, for we have the palms all ready for him. Now is the very time to ask

'Qui de nous, qui de nous va devenir un Dieu?'

For the rest, this new avatar of French literature was foreseen. To return to morality, to mysticism, to the méringues of psychology and the creams of feeling, was but natural after so much pepper, and mustard, and sauce piquante. But I am rather sceptical about it. These repentings and asceticisms of the *fin du siècle* are simply the well-known phenomenon of debauch—the nausea the day after. Let a few days pass, and at the first clash of the glasses, at the first gleam from certain eyes, away go the good resolutions. So if anybody wants really to be edified, he had better not wait for the coming idealist novels, but apply himself to the *Imitation*."

## BREWER'S HISTORICAL NOTE-BOOK.

*The Historical Note-Book.* With an Appendix of Battles. By the Rev. E. Cobham Brewer, LL.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1891.

THIS handsomely printed volume of nearly one thousand pages is in the main a condensed cyclopædia of universal history, minus the epitomized histories of states and reigns, as well as most of the biographical information belonging to a reference-book of this kind, but with the addition of numerous features not strictly pertaining to such a cyclopædia. It is designed to be a storehouse of information wherein the reader of history and general literature shall find a ready explanation whenever, in the course of his reading, anything of an historical nature presents itself about which he may need to be enlightened. Says the preface:

"Probably no one could turn over a couple of pages of this book and not find some item which he would be at a loss to explain or to find in any book near at hand. It may be hidden in some corner of history, some modern or ancient encyclopædia, some law dictionary, periodical, or book of antiquities; but, being neither tabulated nor inserted in the index, would be as hard to light upon as the traditional grain of wheat in a bushel of chaff."

The following miscellaneous list of subjects will suggest the range of the 'Historical Note-Book,' which contains more than 10,000 distinct entries: Armada, Battle of the Spurs, Chiltern Hundreds, Column of July, Dodo,

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Dublin Castle, Eutycheans, Fable of Jenkins's Ear, Falk Laws, Free Trade, Gallia, Geneva Convention, Gonfalons, Gongorism, High Steward, Ludgate, Luther of England, Millenarians, Oak Boys, Peace of Nicias, Plon-Plon, Pocket Borough, Posse Comitatus, Postage Stamp, Puseyism, Raphael of Cats, Romance of the Rose, Sodor and Man, Sorbonne, Steelyard, Talmud, Thermidor, Three W's, Will's Coffee-House. There are twenty-nine separate entries introduced by the word "Liturgy," forty-nine by "Council" or "Councils," twenty-two by "League," fourteen by "Law" or "Laws," one hundred and eighteen by "Order," sixteen by "Rule," and fifty-seven by "Massacre," while there are no fewer than eight different "Scourges."

A very prominent and indeed the most characteristic feature of the volume is the extraordinary mass of entries under captions representing cognomens, sobriquets, epithets, nicknames, pseudonyms, and appellations of every kind. Thus we find "Demosthenes of France" (Mirabeau), "Demosthenes of America" (Webster), "Demosthenes of the Pulpit" (Dr. Thomas Rennell); "Cicero of the British Senate" (Canning), and six other Ciceros; the "Lion of Janina" (Ali Pasha), and a host of other "Lions," including the "Lion of Lucerne"; "Homer of Ferrara" (Ariosto), "Homer of Khorasan" (Firdusi), "Homer of Modern Days" (Scott), and nearly a dozen more of Homers; seven Michael Angelos, six Livys, four Sapphos; "Shakespeare of Harmony" (Richard Wagner, a "very exaggerated comparison"), "Shakespeare of Painting" (Salvator Rosa, "so called by Garrick"), and half-a-dozen more Shaksperes; eleven "Bards," etc. There is a "Russian Byron" (Pushkin), a "Russian Messalina" (Catharine II.), a "Mongolian Bonaparte" (Tamerlane), a "Danish Butler" (Holberg), a "French Roscius" (Talma), and an "American Cato" (Samuel Adams). Andrew Jackson figures in a triple guise at least, as "Old Hickory," as the "Sharp Knife," and as the "Pointed Arrow," and American democracy receives a tribute in such titles as "Rail Splitter" and the "Mill Boy of the Slashes" (Henry Clay). To give a better idea of this feature of the work, we must mention a few miscellaneous appellations not biographical: "Ireland of Austria" (Hungary), "Melancholy Magyars," "Garden of England," "Gate of Tears," "Gate of France," "Monarchy of the Barricades," "Four Burghs," "Foul Raid," "Quarrel of Friars," "Queen Bess's Day," "Rowdy Parliament," "Parnassus of Japan," "Maiden Violin."

Dr. Brewer appears to entertain an exaggerated notion of the importance of information of this class, and he has introduced a host of such explanatory items to which the general reader could not possibly have any occasion to refer, as he would come across the appellations in question only in situations where an explanation is unnecessary. Writers are not in the habit, for example, of speaking of the "Star of the North" (Gustavus Adolphus), leaving it to the reader to identify the character, or of the "Father of Statics" (Archimedes), or of the "Jewish Socrates" (Moses Mendelssohn), or of the "Portuguese Horace" (Antonio Ferreira), or of the "Flemish Raphael" (Frans Floris), or of the "Sicilian Ox" (Thomas Aquinas, "called *ox* from his great size"), or of the "Spoilt Child of Fortune" (Masséna). The fact is, that in collecting the material for this work, the author does not appear to have been even in the slightest degree influenced by the consideration as to what likelihood there was that the particular item would be sought in its columns. The volume has, therefore, a two-fold character: it is a reference cyclopædia, and a treasury of interesting items to be read as the eye happens to light upon them.

In spite of the statement in the preface that "Inventions and discoveries, the great staple of a book of dates, find no place here," we have, in turning the pages, come across "Boyle's Law," "Watches," "Vernier" (accompanied by one out of a dozen or so of illustrations which appear in the volume), "Electric Telegraph," "Pasteurienne (*sic*) Inoculation," "Pasteurise," "Listerise," "Gunter's Chain," "Mercator's Projection," etc., although the telephone, phonograph, sewing-machine, and most similar topics are excluded. With regard to biographical information (mostly of the briefest kind), the author's plan has been to deal mainly with personages who have received some appellation descriptive of character or talents, or who have figured under some pseudonym. Outside of this category he has found room in his museum for quite a number of rulers and other worthies. His selection, however, is curiously arbitrary, so that one might almost imagine that admission had been dictated by lot. Thus we find all the Georges, and Henrys, and Charleses of England, and the Heinrichs, Karls, Ottos, and Friedrichs of the Holy Roman Empire, but search in vain for Frederick the Great, or the Alexanders of Russia, or Czar Nicholas, and no Philips, ancient or modern, are to be discovered. Ferdinand the Catholic is ignored, notwithstanding his surname, and his consort, Isabella, shares his fate.

It is more unfortunate than surprising that the sixty years of reading with "a slip of paper and a pencil" at his side should have made our author so little of a scholar as these pages show him to be, in some departments at least. The work teems with blunders, inaccuracies, and shortcomings of every description. We shall point out a few for the sake of illustration. Under "Gonzaga" it is stated that the dukes of this house ruled in Mantua until 1665, "when the territory was taken possession of by the kaiser-king Joseph I." This kaiser-king did not ascend the throne until 1705, and the duchy became a possession of Austria in 1708. Under "Knights Hospitallers" we are informed that when the knights were "expelled from Judæa [*sic*], they were allowed by Karl V. (1530) to settle in Malta." On the following page, under "Knights of Rhodes," the author himself tells us that some centuries intervened between the events in question. "Sarmatia" is despatched in the following laconic words: "Russia in Europe. Russia in Asia was called Scythia." In the otherwise very lame account of the Peace of Westphalia we are told that "Lusatia and Alsace were taken from Austria, and Austria received instead Transylvania and Croatia." We wonder where Dr. Brewer got this information. Transylvania came out victorious from the Thirty Years' War, and it was not until nearly half a century after its close that Austria laid hands upon her. As for Croatia, the only Power that disputed her possession with the House of Austria was Turkey. Dr. Brewer has no space to speak of Attila's invasion under "Huns," the few words of history not extending beyond A. D. 375, but he makes up for thus abridging their career by speaking of the Hungarians as Huns under the head of "Golden Bull." In another part of this same article "Golden Bull," we read: "Since 1440 the electorate [in the German Empire] has been merely nominal, as the House of Rudolph has been permanently established." This item appears to have been "jotted down" while the author was reading with a "slip of paper and a pencil" at his side some old book published in the last century, for the last of the descendants of Rudolph who wore the imperial crown of Germany laid it down in 1806. We are told, it is true, in the notice of the House of Habsburg (*s. v.* "Habsburg") that the dynasty still continues to rule "in that part of Germany called Austria and Hungary." What German patriot ever dreamed of such a "Vaterland"? The Farnese family is described as a "princely Italian family" without the slightest indication being given of the time at which it flourished, and without any mention of the fact that it was long the ruling dynasty in Parma.

Coming to America, we learn that the "Minute Men" were the "militia of 12,000 men enrolled by the American Congress adjourned from Concord to Cambridge." The chronological data concerning our country cannot be said to be very reliable, but the compositor may be responsible for some of the errors. In the voluminous dictionary of battles which constitutes an appendix to the work, we find February 6 as the date of the battle of Shiloh (April 6, 7), October 11 (instead of October 7) for the battle of Saratoga, July 16 (instead of August 16) for the battle of Bennington, January 2 (instead of January 3) for the battle of Princeton. In this dictionary of battles we fail to discover Wilderness, Hampton Roads, or Chattanooga.

This cyclopædia is preëminently a cyclopædia of facts, but the author's personality crops out here and there in telling characterization, usually appended in fine type. Thus, "Milan Decree" winds up with, "Most certainly Napoleon was no politician." Under "*Times'* Memorial" he says: "The attempt to expose the Irish Land League was equally noble, but miscarried through the villany of one Pigott." Under "Plug-drawers" we read: "The Luddite orators, 1811, the Chartist orators, 1848, etc., and the Home Rule orators, 1890, etc., are your plug-drawers who waste their sympathy in 'one weak, washy, everlasting flood.'" In the two pages of fine print devoted to "Macrobiots," the author presents us with a list of about a hundred persons in modern times whose life is reputed to have exceeded 120 years. The list winds up with Thomas Carn, who appears to have died in 1588 at the age of 207, "according to the parish register of St. Leonard's, Shoreditch." Dr. Brewer adds this commentary: "Some of the names are not worthy of credit, such as Rowin, whose wife was 164; Surrington, whose son was 103; Keit, whose youngest daughter was 109. However, the list is a long one, and it is well to have it handy." He has learned that three successive German emperors, Albert II., Frederick III., and Maximilian I., paid with their lives for their fondness for melons; and this fact (not gathered from Coxe's 'History of the House of Austria') has so impressed him that he not only takes pains to mention it in the biographical notices of the sovereigns, and under the head of "Eating Fruit (*Death from*)," but goes so far as to insert a distinct title, "Melon Colic," under which this wonderful incident is recorded. Nor has he forgotten the fatal grape-stone which deprived the world of Anacreon, and the Caliph Yezid II. of his favorite concubine, while "La Belle Gabrielle" is stated (*s. v.* "Eating Fruit") to have died from "eating an orange" and Gen. Knox from "eating raisins."

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## RECENT NOVELS.

*A Group of Noble Dames.* By Thomas Hardy. Harper & Brothers.

*What's Bred in the Bone.* By Grant Allen. Boston: Benj. R. Tucker.

*On Newfound River.* By Thomas Nelson Page. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*Mea Culpa:* A Woman's Last Word. By Henry Harland. John W. Lovell Co.

*Tourmalin's Time Cheques.* By F. Anstey. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co.

THESE tales of "dear dead women" of the last century, to which Mr. Hardy has given a slight seeming thread of connection by putting them into the mouths of different members of "one of the Wessex Field and Antiquarian clubs," have much the same sort of fascination that one feels in reading the tales of the Arabian Nights. They are told with an inborn gift for story-telling which seems to cost the teller neither study nor effort, and which never wearies the hearer in listening. Unlike others which have a more dramatic interest, stories of this kind may be laid down at almost any point without uncomfortable sensations of suspense, and may be taken up again at any time without a flagging of interest. If they seldom touch the deeper springs of sympathy or emotion, they appeal to a practical experience of human nature in a great many different phases. Mr. Hardy's ten noble dames (with very varying degrees of noble instinct) move in a background of delightful rural scenery and stately domestic architecture of court, and hall, and manor house. One is not admitted too closely to their intimacy by means of frequent or minute analysis of character. A decorous reserve, like that approved in the manners of the times of which he writes, restrains the author's pen. When, however, he does describe, it is with clearness and decision: "Her virtues lay in no resistant force of character, but in a natural inappetency for evil things, which to her were as unmeaning as joints of flesh to a herbivorous creature."

As is inevitable in a collection of stories of very unequal length and finish, some of these heroines are brought more clearly face to face with the reader than others. Betty, first Countess of Wessex, will live longer in the memory than any of the other titled ladies whose histories follow hers. There is a mixture of pathos and humor in the means the eighteen-year-old heiress devises for escaping from the strange husband to whom, by a custom of Eastern barbarity, she has been married at twelve; and the far-sighted bravado by which the philosophic courtier seeks to make an impression on his obdurate young wife is most ingeniously conceived. The neatly pointed sarcasm of which the writer shows such complete mastery lends a zest to the whole group of stories. For the rest, the designer has done his work well in the pretty and original cover of the volume, and the few illustrations are pleasing and suggestive.

"But then, queer things are the way in Africa." So writes Mr. Grant Allen, after an inextricable jumble of circumstances has brought Granville Kelmscott and his (disowned) half brother, Guy Waring, to the diamond fields of the Dark Continent. It would seem, in the light of the events described in the story before us, that queer things are "the way" in England also, particularly in ancient and highly respectable county families and among their descendants. A secret marriage, an illegal one, and a murder are some of the skeletons in the closets of a couple of fine old seats in Surrey. A forgery, and the likeness of Cyril Waring to his absent twin-brother Guy, add to the general embroilment. Prominent in the plot is a charming young creature with a beautiful face and an inherited tendency to break out into the "Naga" dance whenever she sees a member of the serpent tribe or hears the appropriate music. She is gifted, moreover, also hereditarily, with an alarming power of knowing by intuition what is passing in the breasts of her acquaintances. We quite agree with Mr. Grant Allen in thinking that for young ladies thus intuitively endowed a course of study at Girton might be superfluous. We hope, however, that no young lady will ever be tempted, in default of an acquaintance with classical models, to form her style on that of 'What's Bred in the Bone.'

Mr. Page takes his readers into the pleasant scenery of a Virginia plantation. But, before the story closes, the quiet of the woods, the old mill-pond, and the river bottoms is broken by some very exciting events. The plot turns upon the indomitable, hereditary will of the Landons, in whom race qualities show a remarkable persistence. "Tall, straight, keen-eyed, aquiline they grew, father and son, for generation after generation, as distinct from their plain neighbors on Newfound as a Lombardy poplar is from the common pine." The family temper, which has already cost a master to the 500 negroes and the acres an heir, threatens to bring about a tragedy between "the Major" and his only son, Bruce. But the story is, in the end, one of averted consequences and unexpected restoration. The Major and the Perdita-like heroine, happy among her old books, her hollyhocks and sweet-peas, and cheering her aged grandfather with feminine wiles, fall into rather hackneyed theatrical attitudes on their first meeting in the thicket. The characters, in fact, which are found to be always true to the life, are those of the "plain neighbors on Newfound." The incorrigible negro, Dick Runaway, who keeps his eye on the would-be murderer because "he got meanness in him," and who is the means of bringing him to his doom (though not the intended lynching), is well drawn. The scene where Squire Johnson "opens cote" at Jones's Cross-roads is described with much humor. Other such pictures as this make amends for the over-elaboration of construction. Mr. Page would undoubtedly have produced a more artistic story if he had used more freely the novelist's privilege of selection, rejecting some episodes altogether, and dwelling with more detail on those chosen. But the characters of the Landon family show unmistakable signs of having been studied from life, and this alone goes far towards making their history readable.

'Mea Culpa' is, as the name implies, autobiographical in form. Notwithstanding the seeming repudiation of sensationalism in the beginning, it is in the end extremely sensational. The characters are few in number—only a selfish and egotistical father, his daughter, a husband who adds brutality to his egoism and tyranny, a friendly musical composer, who helps along the action whenever such help is needed, and the lover. The lover is an American by birth and an artist by profession. The others, with the exception of the musical composer, are Russians, and are old acquaintances of the novel-reader. As the consciences of Russian Serene Highnesses are supposed, when they are made to figure in highly colored romances, to be impervious to remorse, it is left for the American lover to declare that "the way of the transgressor is hard," although the manner in which he avoids treading in it is not the one approved by moralists. A certain amount of knowledge of the world must go to the composition of a novel of this kind, but it is not knowledge of a wholesome or penetrating sort.

From the fact of the navigator's gaining time in sailing with the sun around the globe, and the aphorism "Time is money," the author of 'Vice Versa' evolves an Anglo-Australian Joint Stock Time Bank, Limited, for the deposit of one's spare time at compound interest, drawable in sums not smaller than fifteen minutes, and cashed on presentation by any clock in motion. He applies this conceit to Peter Tourmalin on the voyage in the *Boomerang* from Sydney to Plymouth, England, with results as ludicrous as they are incalculable, and with a verisimilitude which Mr. Frank Stockton might envy. Mr. Anstey's ingenuity is equal to every demand of his absurd hypothesis, and is tested to the utmost by his contriving that the cashing of the minimum checks by which Peter is transported from London at will back to the deck of the *Boomerang*, shall be arbitrary on the part of the Bank so far as relates to the order of time. Hence Peter's successive experiences are not consecutive, the sequel often precedes the antecedent, and a series of fascinating complexities and misunderstandings and false situations arises, ending in a truly terrible climax. Mr. Anstey has done nothing more original or fantastic with more success, and it is to be said that the reader, however tempted to hurry on to the dénouement, can also without loss draw his chapters, as Peter did his cheques, with a decent interval. The American edition of this story shows, by its mean and slovenly typography, that it was the hurried last of the piracies in which we have heretofore indulged ourselves. We congratulate the author that his admirable and individual humor will hereafter have a right to be paid for by Americans who enjoy it—and may their name be legion.

## FISKE'S AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

*The American Revolution.* By John Fiske. 2 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

THIS succinct account of the American Revolution is designed by its author to form part of a projected history of the United States, which, when finished, "shall comprise the whole story from 1492 to (say) 1865" within a compass "neither too long to be manageable nor too brief to be interesting." 'The Beginnings of New England' and the 'Critical Period of American History,' already reviewed in these columns, are also to form component parts of the completed work. The narrative in the 'Critical Period' takes up the story at the point where it ends in the last of the two volumes now before us.

Portions of these volumes have been already published as historical essays, or they have been used as the basis of popular lectures in cities "from Maine to Oregon." In view of the popularity which has waited on these lecture courses, Mr. Fiske expresses a modest surprise at the interest shown in "a plain narrative of events already well known." Though he says that he has "never to this day understood the secret of it," the secret will be pretty clear to the average reader. The narrative here given is written with an undisguised warmth of sympathy for the principles and the heroes of the American Revolution. The character-sketches, though drawn with a free hand, are very vivid in their outlines, and have a physiognomy which is pleasing to the popular sense, because they symbolize with patriotic ideals and give literary form to popular preconceptions. The smooth and limpid flow of the

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writer's narrative style carries the reader along without much effort on his own part. The story seems to tell itself, so skilfully has the writer selected his threads and so well does he hold them in hand for the purpose he has in view. Avowedly shaping his narrative in such a way "as to emphasize relations of cause and effect that are often buried in the mass of details," he does not often pause to indulge in negative criticism, or in what he calls "circumstantial description."—though the minute detail with which the Duponceau kissing story is told (vol. ii., pp. 51, 52)—recounting how "the gay young Frenchman" contrived to kiss the first Yankee girl whom he met on landing at Portsmouth in New Hampshire—was perhaps hardly necessary to explain the nexus of events in the American Revolution.

As the plan of the book contemplates nothing more than a "general history" of the Revolutionary War, the author premises that he has not even undertaken to mention all the events of that period, but only those which are of prime significance. The reader, therefore, must not turn to these volumes in hope of finding "new facts"—Mr. Fiske puts us on our guard against such a presumption; but he may turn to them with full assurance of faith for a fresh rehearsal of the old facts, which no time can stale, and for new views of those old facts, according to the larger framework of ideas in which they can now be set by the master of a captivating style and an expert in historical philosophy.

It will be seen at once that the limited plan of the work, and the success with which the writer has performed his task, conspire to leave but little room for criticism. Slight mistakes and small inaccuracies there will be, of course, in any free handling of facts so multitudinous as those assorted and condensed in this historical compend. Mr. Fiske knows very well, though his text contains no intimation of the fact, that the extract which he purports to quote from the speech of John Dickinson against the Declaration of Independence is not taken from any such speech as reported at the time, but is culled from a so-called "vindication" written by Dickinson six years afterwards. Reference is twice made to the alleged fact that Gen. Charles Lee, "dying in a mean public-house in Philadelphia," expressed as his last wish "that he might not be buried in consecrated ground, or within a mile of any church or meeting-house, because he had kept so much bad company in this world that he did not choose to continue it in the next." This modified version of the military cynic's "last wish" completely misses the real point of his theological irony, and blunts the sharp sting of his anti-American antipathy. What the rollicking old deist really wrote in his last will and testament was this: "I desire most earnestly that I may not be buried in any church or churchyard, *or within a mile of any Presbyterian or Anabaptist meeting-house*, for *since I have resided in this country* I have kept so much bad company when living that I do not choose to continue it when dead." The italicised clauses point the gist of this post-obit jocosity. Such measured contempt for America and such exact graduation of theological bad odors (differing, it would seem, by a mile in point of their comparative pungency and penetrative power), should not have been marred in the quoting. Lee was always picturesque in the devil-may-care *insouciance* of his speech and conduct, but he was never more genuine or true to himself than in the extravagancy and crazy ribaldry of this "last wish."

We think it is something like a hasty generalization to say that "the four cardinal events" in the history of our Western frontier during the Revolution are these: "(1) The defeat of the Shawnees and their allies at Point Pleasant in 1774; (2) the defeat of the Cherokees on the Watauga in 1776; (3) Clark's conquest of the Illinois country in 1778–'79; (4) the detection and thwarting of the French diplomacy in 1782 by Jay." This enumeration leaves out of account the successful contention made by the "landless States" against the "landed States" for the Federal possession and control of the unoccupied Western territory. More of American history has hinged on this cardinal event than on almost any other in our annals—as witness the long delay in the ratification of the Articles of Confederation (to which Mr. Fiske adverts without explaining the reason for it), the passage of the Ordinance of 1787, the government of the Territories under the Constitution, the Missouri Compromise, the Kansas and Nebraska agitation, the civil war. Indeed, an American Senator, who is also a close student of American history, has ventured the remark that, without the national territory bequeathed by the constitutional law of the Revolution as a bone of contention in our Federal politics, it is difficult to see what the history of the United States would have been. The name of Gen. Cadwalader, correctly spelled in the first of these volumes, is misspelled in the second and in the index. The [*sic*] of surprise placed after Gen. Burgoyne's use of the phrase "is broke" seems hardly necessary. The locution was very common in prose and speech at the close of the last century, as Dr. Murray records in his great dictionary. Less can be said in defence of Gen. William Howe's use of "is drove," but then Gen. Charles Lee, who knew him well, admonishes us that Howe was "very illiterate." The statement made in the second volume (p. 26) that the Articles of Confederation "were ready by the summer of 1778" for submission to the States, rather obscures the fact that they were made ready for such submission on the 17th of November, 1777.

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*Criticism and Fiction.* By W. D. Howells. Harpers. 1891.

MR. HOWELLS has for some years been making himself heard monthly as a critic of books in general, with a persistency discouraging to those who would gladly close their ears and retain completely their literary regard for him; and now he has made assurance doubly sure by gathering up a handful of these criticisms and making a book of them. It is a hazardous thing to collect journalistic work which naturally deserves only a momentary life; and when it is snip-snap in character—a word on this, a word on that, a compliment to a friend, a fling at a classic, a tirade at a whole class—the experiment will hardly escape one great risk. Mr. Howells has ventured it and not gone scathless. The fatal thing about this little volume is that it is dull. The excitement, such as it was, of seeing an author of position jeering at his predecessors, pitying Scott, depreciating Thackeray, pointing the finger at Goethe's crudities, and in general working himself up into a state of mind whenever the poor "classics," on their comfortable upper shelves, came into his thoughts, was amusing for a while; but now it is an old story. Writing of this sort, too, necessarily requires expletives, and expletives are, for literary purposes, few; it does not permit of much variety of mood, nor does it abound in thought; and the result is a monotony of style and matter that the most amiable cleverness in the use of slang, and the finest of contempt for "those poor islanders," cannot save.

There are two leading ideas or notions in the bundle of paragraphs that try hard to look like chapters. One is that critics are sorry fellows; the other is, that the art of fiction as now practised is finer than it ever was before—that is, provided it is practised in Mr. Howells's way. With the best of dispositions to discover more than these oft-repeated opinions, we cannot find more; the rest is, in fact, illustrative and expansive of these two propositions. The first, as to critics, may be disregarded; it is not new, nor is it of the least consequence when uttered by one critic about his fellows; it only means that he is intolerant. The second proposition is, however, original with its propounder; and, without discussing the truth of it, we shall notice only how it is supported by its author. When men put forth such a judgment of Scott as he has now made his own, they are regarded as persons who do not much trouble themselves with thinking, but consult only their dislikes, and we in turn do not trouble ourselves about their opinion; but Mr. Howells exhibits a remarkable faculty for supporting his views by quotations from some of the classics, Burke or Emerson, or by the character of Gen. Grant, or the contemporary opinion of Canon Farrar, and seems contriving to give the impression that these various persons agree with him fundamentally. This may easily mislead the reader, and its influence is increased by the frequency with which Mr. Howells reminds us that Spain or Italy or the Russias also agree with him; and so he establishes a prima-facie case. In other words, for we must be brief, he is an honest partisan who believes that all things work together to prove he is right. He is an advocate, and he makes no concessions, and never intimates any doubt of his argument. He uses his literary material as it is natural for an advocate to do. A few early startling statements attracted great attention, and since then he has been the critical sensationalist of the time. His little volume is the record of all this; but it has no value except as an example of eccentricity.

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*Cornwallis.* By W. S. Seton Karr. [Rulers of India Series.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

THE name of Cornwallis recalls some of the most striking vicissitudes of English history; it is connected with the fortunes of England in two hemispheres, with the setting of her star in the West and its almost simultaneous rise in the East. He commanded the army that surrendered to Lafayette at Yorktown; he was a great administrator in India; he was Viceroy of Ireland during the rebellion of 1798; he concluded the Union with England; and he negotiated the only treaty ever made by England with Napoleon Bonaparte, viz., the Peace of Amiens. As Mr. Seton Karr's book deals chiefly with the "Ruler of India," he is obliged to pass lightly over the very important parts played by Cornwallis in America and Europe; although even in such widely distant spheres of action and politics as India and North America, the events and their consequences are not wholly unconnected. It was the financial embarrassment of the East India Company that induced the English Government to allow direct exportation by the Company to the colonies of the tea that was thrown into Boston harbor in 1773; and undoubtedly it was the loss of her colonies that stimulated

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and strengthened England in turning all her energies upon the preservation and extension of her Indian dominions.

Cornwallis held a much stronger position as Governor-General than any of his predecessors in office. He was the friend of the leading English Ministers, and he was backed by the powerful and triumphant Cabinet of William Pitt. His Indian Governor-Generalship represents to the student of Indian history a remarkable period, which Mr. Seton Karr's book does not sketch in sufficiently clear outline. It was during the interval of calm between two great storms, between the end of the American war and the beginning of the desperate contest with revolutionary France, that Cornwallis went to India, in 1786. This quiet time gave him leisure to disable Tippu of Mysore, the only formidable rival to the English in South India, to establish peaceful relations with other native States, and to carry through some very important internal reforms. Of foreign affairs Mr. Seton Karr tells us little, and of the internal reforms he tells us too much; he enters largely upon details concerning land tenures and the assessment of land revenue in Bengal, uses too many outlandish phrases, and describes the legislation whereby the land tax, which before had been variable, was by Cornwallis fixed and made permanent. The measure was undoubtedly successful in contenting the landlords, but unluckily it left the tenants exposed to virtually unlimited rack-renting, and has thus been the source of much subsequent trouble and litigation. There is also a chapter on Sale Laws and Resumptions which we cannot conscientiously recommend to the ordinary reader, seeing that even among experts these questions have in the course of a century become somewhat musty.

Cornwallis left India in 1793, just as the war with France broke out again in Europe. He was succeeded by Lord Mornington, afterwards Marquis Wellesley, who arrived in India imbued with the proud and warlike spirit which then ruled the policy of the English nation. Wellesley's Governor-Generalship was one long period of wars and annexations, insomuch that the English Government, alarmed at so much glory, prevailed upon Cornwallis to go out again, in 1805, with the object of pouring some water into the fiery wine of Lord Wellesley, who had returned home. He found, as Mr. Seton Karr observes, the whole scene transformed, the English dominion immensely expanded, and triumphant armies in the field. He did his best to rein in his ardent generals, and to conciliate the native princes with whom they were fighting, but he was in weak health and advanced in years; the exertion and the climate overpowered him in a few months, and he died at an Indian station in 1806. Mr. Seton Karr says rightly that his life was one of uninterrupted devotion to duty and work; he was a high-minded statesman, who did his country good service, and whose name deserves to be honorably remembered in America as well as in India and in England.

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*Landscape Gardening.* By Samuel Parsons, jr., Superintendent of Parks, New York City. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891.

In spite of rich binding, handsome printing, and numerous pictures, this is a disappointing book. The broad title, 'Landscape Gardening,' and the author's distinguished position in command of the parks of New York city, naturally warranted the expectation that America was at last to be provided with an adequate exposition of the principles and practice of a misunderstood art. The fitting of land and landscape to human use and enjoyment in such manner as may be most appropriate and most beautiful in any given spot or region, is certainly artists' work. The professor of this art must be a broad man. He must be as responsive to the intricate loveliness of the wild woods as to the open beauty of the fields. He must be a lover of every type of natural beauty. He must also feel the pathos and the charm which unpretending human life adds to scenery. He must be capable of grasping the fundamental characteristics of every spot and scene, and in working upon landscape he must always be guided by his reverence for the spirit of the place.

If the author of the book before us is such a man, his book does not do him justice. He once refers to the charming simplicity of the Irving place at Sunnyside, where, from the happy union of water, grass, common trees, and a plain house, is evolved a memorable scene; but most of his volume is devoted to glowing descriptions of trees, shrubs, and herbs, and we are told more than once that "every well-planted lawn must have" this or that tree or shrub. The book really treats of little except "lawn-planting," and this subject (which should have given the title to the book) is mistakenly defined as "a simple, harmonious arrangement for the exhibition of individual plants." This is the doctrine which has been preached in the nursery catalogues until the ledges of Bar Harbor and the smooth lawns of Newport display collections of the same conspicuous specimens.

The descriptions of plants, though brief, are generally excellent. The accompanying two hundred pictures are of three kinds: good process prints from negatives, cuts from good and bad ink sketches, and small plant portraits taken from familiar but unacknowledged sources. Following the chapters on plants are a few stray hints on "Small Places," "City Parks," "Churchyards," and "Rookeries." The book is not the well-rounded work of a master in one of the fine arts, but it is full of good sense in ordinary matters, and it will undoubtedly educate the large public which will buy it for its exceedingly handsome appearance.

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*The New York State Reformatory in Elmira.* By Alexander Winter. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1891.

This book, which appeared simultaneously in England and Germany, is a flattering tribute to the abilities of Mr. Brockway, the Superintendent of the institution which is described. The "benevolent despotism" concerning which Aristotle expressed himself so favorably, seems really to be established at Elmira, and to justify the expectations of the ancient philosopher. Indeed, as we read this account of the system of education pursued and the results attained, it is impossible to suppress a regret that criminals alone are permitted to share in such advantages. But there is an unfortunate antinomy between discipline and liberty, and the scale of rewards and punishments is far more extensive within prison walls than it is without.

The system that has operated with such distinguished success at Elmira is thoroughly scientific. The controlling principle is the incessant presentation of motives to virtuous endeavor. The ultimate motive is, of course, freedom—the release from duress. The subordinate motives are the desires for physical comfort, for knowledge, for improvement in capacity, and for reputation. Every act is so regulated as to suggest these motives. With the temptation to idleness, insubordination, or mischief, there is carefully associated the idea of loss of everything that is desirable. With the ambition to do well is associated the thought of the pleasant results of well-doing. Upon his entrance, the prisoner is placed in the second grade, from which he may rise to the first or fall into the third. A minute system of marking records advance or regression. If the prisoner chooses to exert himself, he receives more palatable food, greater liberty, and more conveniences in his cell, larger privileges in his work and in his recreation, and withal the assurance that he is moving towards freedom. If he refuses to exert himself, a thousand things remind him unpleasantly that he is making his condition worse.

Under these influences, about 35 per cent. of the prisoners begin to improve at once, and proceed without relapse, getting their release on parole within fifteen months. About the same proportion are guilty of occasional backsliding, and do not obtain their liberation so soon by several months, but still within two years. Nineteen per cent. are perverse, and require a year longer—unless they are released by the operation of the law which limits their detention to the maximum period prescribed for their offence. The remainder are the black sheep, who are bad beyond hope of reformation. The average duration of imprisonment is now about twenty-one months.

Apart from this system of general laws, a special study is made by the Superintendent of every prisoner. His whole past history is investigated, and the treatment which is most applicable to his case is determined upon. At any time he may have a personal conversation with the Superintendent, the number applying for such audience being from forty to fifty a day. Many of the prisoners, it is scarcely necessary to say, have never enjoyed the opportunity of consulting a wise and sympathetic adviser, and many affecting instances of their appreciation of this privilege are recorded. It cannot be doubted that numerous cases of spiritual regeneration occur under such influences, and it has been positively ascertained that nearly 80 per cent. of those discharged are reformed, at least to the extent of becoming law-abiding citizens. It is probable that the percentage is as high as 90, but it is impossible, for various reasons, to follow the careers of all the graduates of this institution of learning.

The accounts of the subjects taught and the methods of teaching, of the library and the newspaper, of the technical training, of the physical culture, of the military discipline, and especially of the "Practical Ethics" class, are full and satisfactory. They are extremely interesting, and we should be glad to review them at some length. But as the book is inexpensive, and is really a manual of the scientific treatment of young offenders, we shall discharge our duty to our readers by calling their attention to this opportunity of informing themselves concerning the gratifying progress which has been made in a difficult department of social reform.

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*The Other Side of the Emin Pasha Relief Expedition.* By H. R. Fox Bourne. London: Chatto & Windus. 1891. Pp. x, 202, 8vo.

The motive of this book, as stated in the preface, is excellent and well-timed. Public sentiment needs to be aroused to a recognition of the rights of the African, and to the demand that his life and property shall not wantonly be taken from him in the interests

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of science or of political or personal ambition. But instead of carrying out this admirable design, Mr. Fox Bourne has simply made a bitter personal attack upon Mr. Stanley, in which there is evident only an anxiety to make him appear to be an "unscrupulous and vainglorious filibuster," who "preferred quarrelling and stealing" to more honest methods of dealing with the natives. This eagerness, joined possibly with ignorance, has led him to absurd lengths, Mr. Stanley's whole course being assumed to have been a succession of blunders and crimes. He studiously belittles the undoubted philanthropic intent of the expedition, which he terms "an ill-managed slave-gang," in order to give prominence to the statement that it was mainly designed to carry out certain ambitious projects of King Leopold and the British East African Company. He asserts that, before Stanley Pool was reached, the leader "had deservedly lost all the respect of his white colleagues, and had forced them to treat with systematic cruelty the black men under them." Mr. Stanley is apparently blamed for having taken one hundred and sixty-five days to cross the frightful forest instead of fifty, as he had expected. His fear lest he should be too late to rescue Emin, which was the sufficient cause for his forcing his way instead of delaying to negotiate with the hostile natives, is ignored, and he is charged with "morally indefensible" conduct, as well as with "*foolish and dishonest waste*" of ammunition. He also "contributed" notably to the ruin of the Equatorial Province, whose Governor he "led as a captive from the Albert Nyanza to Bagamoyo."

It is of course impossible for us to show in detail how weak is the basis of truth upon which these confident assertions rest, and an examination of his closing statement must suffice to demonstrate the thoroughly partisan character of Mr. Fox Bourne's attempt to give the "other side." "We are not told," he says, "and evidently Mr. Stanley himself neither knows nor cares, how many thousands of slaughtered natives should be added to the 311 dead Zanzibaris, Sudanese, and Somalis, to make up the huge total of mortality incident to the methods and the exploits of the Emin Relief Expedition." The impression is given here that the mortality was phenomenally great. The "thousands of slaughtered natives" may be set aside as the wildest exaggeration, as far from the truth as the gratuitous assumption that Mr. Stanley was indifferent to their fate. Every one familiar with the history of African expeditions knows that a loss of 311 (nearly half of whom, it should be remembered, rotted to death at Yambuya) out of 693 ignorant and childlike Africans, considering the length of time, almost three years, of the expedition, the immense distances traversed, through regions devastated by slave-hunters, and peopled by men mad with fear at the sight of strangers, was, in fact, relatively very small. We do not hesitate to say that Gen. Gordon, whom Mr. Fox Bourne will not accuse of indifference to the negro, for a purely scientific purpose, probably sacrificed in a single year more men than Mr. Stanley lost in three years, including all natives slain, in his attempt to aid Emin Pasha. The occasion was the transport of a steamer a distance of 100 miles about the cataracts of the upper Nile simply for the exploration of the Albert Nyanza. It was a very difficult task, but Gordon's sole comment in his Diary on its completion was, "It has really been a terrible year." Dr. Junker, however, who was then in the country whence the most of the carriers were taken, says that 500 of these unfortunate creatures "were reported to have succumbed to the tremendous efforts they had been called upon to make. The very air was said to have been tainted by the dead bodies left lying along the route, which Maj. Prout had consequently to avoid when coming down from Magungo." Mr. Fox Bourne makes a sneering reference to Mr. Stanley's thankfulness at having meat from a cow taken in one of their combats, the first which he had tasted for eleven months. But Gen. Gordon began his transport operations by sending out an expedition against the hostile natives which brought in 2,000 cows, occasioning an incalculable amount of misery to an innocent people, whose only crime was that they preferred independence to the Egyptian yoke. The truth is, that one of Mr. Stanley's greatest merits, shown upon this expedition as well as throughout his career as an explorer, is his scrupulous care for his men. His indignation at the sufferings which the rear column experienced—needlessly, in his opinion—was in fact the main cause of his, in some respects, hasty and ungenerous attacks upon its unfortunate officers.

The account of Emin Pasha and his work in the Equatorial Province is as much too favorable as the judgment of Mr. Stanley is too harsh. It is difficult to believe that the author has read any other than the highly colored statements which first aroused the enthusiasm of Europe for his rescue. There can be little doubt, however, from Jephson's testimony, confirmed, as it is, in every important particular by Casati, that the boasted civilization introduced by Emin was a mere veneer confined to a few stations on the river. The rule of the Turks, as the Egyptians are called, was rightfully detested by the wretched natives whom they misgoverned, and who very likely welcomed the "oppression of Mahdist fanatics" to which Mr. Fox Bourne says the Relief Expedition consigned them. We have had occasion more than once to condemn Mr. Stanley for what has seemed to us his injustice to some of his companions, but we have neither sympathy for nor patience with such wholesale and reckless condemnation as is contained in this ill-advised and ill-tempered book.

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*Forty Years in a Moorland Parish.* By the Rev. J. C. Atkinson, D.C.L. Macmillan & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. xi., 457.

THE author of this singularly interesting book has been for nearly forty-five years incumbent of the parish of Danby in Cleveland (Yorkshire, England), and in the preface says that he must have walked more than 70,000 miles in the prosecution of his clerical work only, and much more than as many again for exercise, relaxation, or recreation. What a profound knowledge of his parish and parishioners this long residence and constant locomotion gave him can be easily seen from the pages of his work, which is nothing less than an almost exhaustive monograph upon a typical English parish. Nearly every feature of its life and inanimate nature is described with the sure and interesting touch of a trained and loving observer. The superstitions, manners, and customs of the people, the antiquities and history, both natural and political, of the parish are treated in a series of desultory but delightful papers, illustrated with excellent maps and a few cuts.

As may be inferred fron the above rough statement of the contents, the book is of peculiar value to the student of folk-lore and of English history (especially of the earlier period); while the philologist will find here and there many quaint phrases to be added to the author's well-known 'Glossary of the Cleveland Dialect.' Most interesting survivals of beliefs in fairies and witches are noted in these pages, and the wedding customs still retain some traces of the primitive bridal by capture. Many curious harvest customs are still in vogue, and assume a new interest when read in connection with such a work as Fraser's 'Golden Bough.' Mr. Atkinson has left no side of his parish uninvestigated, and gives interesting accounts of his barrow-digging and its results, while incidentally demolishing the theory of the British villages so called, which seem to be, after all, only old mining pits. We cannot do more than refer to the valuable light that the author throws upon the questions of village communities and division of land, and to say in conclusion that the general reader will find much that is attractive in the introductory general description of the parish and its aspects in winter, with blizzards not inferior in terror to those of our own Northwest.

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*The Colors of Animals:* Their Meaning and Use, especially considered in the case of Insects. By Edward Bagnall Poulton. D. Appleton & Co. 1890. Ill. 8vo, pp. xiii, 360.

"IN *view of this public mention of my name*, I may perhaps be excused for making the personal statement that any scientific work I have had the opportunity of doing has been inspired by one firm purpose—the desire to support, in however small a degree, and to illustrate by new examples, those great principles which we owe to the life and writings of Charles Darwin, and especially the preëminent principle of Natural Selection." This is our author's protest against being called "an industrious young observer who is accumulating facts telling with more or less force against pure Darwinism." It prepares one for a personal equation not to be ignored in estimating his work. He is one of a group of eminent English scientists who advocate natural selection as "the one solid foundation on which evolution rests." From their point of view the book is a very good presentation of the special evidence to which it is limited. The field is thoroughly canvassed, everything that might be used in support of the position has been culled, and the author has added much from his own observation and discussion. That evidence selected on account of its bearings and carefully explained should *be heartily welcomed by an opponent, is some*thing not wholly agreeable to a partisan. It is easy to see whence Mr. Poulton's critics derive aid and comfort. His views are so extreme that their demands for support are too great, and an ever patent desire to see things favorable to his belief does not enhance the value of the observations. Consequently, the claims are not always well supported, and much of the evidence brought forward is quite as serviceable in the hands of opponents.

In the whole, so many of the so-called facts are taken at second hand, unverified, and full of prejudice, that the work would have been greatly strengthened by cutting down one-half. There is little force in paragraphs like the following: "Mr. A. C. Billups of Niagara, Ontario, tells me that during an exceptionally mild winter, about seven or eight years ago, nei her the 'snow bird' nor the American Hare acquired the winter dress. Hence the power of Variable Resemblance appears to be possessed by certain birds." An explanation of selective action in which a number of slow-running dogs and not very swift hares are

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placed on an island where there is food for hares but none for dogs, becomes ridiculous when practically considered: the slower dogs are to starve, the swifter ones to catch the slower hares, thus selecting the swifter of both dogs and hares. In practice the slow dog would catch the quarry tired out by the swift one, and each would do what he might to exterminate the hares by catching the young and the gravid females. Mimicry, protective and aggressive, is illustrated by certain British caterpillars, with large eye-like spots, said to mimic a cobra-like serpent which "inspires alarm by the large eye-like 'spectacles' upon the dilated hood, and thus offers an appropriate model for the swollen anterior end of the caterpillar with its terrifying markings. It is extremely interesting that the caterpillar should thus mimic a feature which is only deceptive in the snake itself." How much better this would be if it were proved that the marks on the cobra were really terrifying, and not beneficial by exciting curiosity in the prey; if British animals were shown to be familiar with the danger lurking in this snake of Southern Asia; and if the marks were only in front of the cobra when it assumes its terrifying attitude instead of behind it.

These are small matters, certainly, but they are samples of many illustrations and much reasoning, no doubt carefully selected. While the book, as compared with others of similar bias in theory, is really a very good one, we can hardly believe the author would not himself be surprised at the number of times he uses "probable," "probably," etc.; at the amount of dependence on positive guesswork. "All animal colors must have been originally non-significant, for although selective agencies have found manifold uses for color, this fact can never have accounted for its first appearance." This must mean non-significant so far as proof of selection is concerned, for there is no proof that color was not from its inception of value to the organism. The statement itself is a confession of weakness concerning causes. If our author had gone a little further and stated that, after first appearance and establishment, selection might or might not have asserted itself, as circumstances were favorable or otherwise, there would be less question of the solidity of the foundation. As regards origin, his is the fortuitous theory of Darwin; to which is opposed that which recognizes the agency of stress of circumstances (climate, food, habits, or whatever) through action and reaction, or through effort, conscious or unconscious, in inducing hereditary tendencies of variation, affecting numbers or all of the individuals of a group, and establishing changes for present adaptation regardless of ultimate fate.

The classification submits for approval a number of new names that may be frequently met with in future Darwinian literature. There are great possibilities of research and of discussion in determining whether a color is cryptic, procryptic, anticryptic, or allocryptic, Apatetic, Epigamic, or Sematic; or, with greater nicety, whether it is aposematic, pseudaposematic, episematic, pseudepisematic, or only allosematic, or pseudallosematic. Applying the prefixes apo, pseudo, epi, allo, pro, and anti to each of the terms completes a range of expression that leaves no reason for lack of exactitude, unless it should be in the color itself. The scheme is based on selected examples, in which the distinctions are more or less apparent. The terminology is especially convenient for the adaptation seeker, and may in common use be made to cover a great deal of what is not known.

*The Tertiary Insects of North America.* By Samuel H. Scudder. Vol. XIII of the U. S. Geological Survey. Washington.

THIS is a solid quarto of 734 pages and 28 plates. An idea of its extent may be obtained from the fact that it contains descriptions of 612 species of fossil insects, viz.: 23 Hymenoptera, 1 Lepidopteron, 79 Diptera, 112 Coleoptera, 266 Hemiptera, 30 Orthoptera, 66 Neuroptera, 34 Arachnida, and 1 Myriapod. The volume is invaluable as a basis for future determinations and comparisons. The author found his field rich beyond what was deemed possible, yet indicating that we are only on the threshold of our possible knowledge. The greater part of his material was drawn from the Florissant beds of Colorado, just east of South Park, from a horizon situate in or near the Oligocene, in shales that had been deposited in shallow lakes of fresh water when the climate of the region was similar to that now affecting the middle belt of the Southern States. The recent affinities of the insects, however, pointed towards Central America. The specimens were secured from shales containing multitudes of fishes, leaves, twigs, fruits, and other remains. Our author rightfully concludes that the idea of Prof. Lesquereux, of an annual drying up of the lake at the time of deposition, is not tenable. Mr. Scudder says:

"The thickness of the paper shales upon which most of the fossil remains are found, and which are composed of uniform layers of triturated flakes of volcanic products, being necessarily the result of long-continued action of water, excludes the idea. The structure of the rocks rather indicates a quiet deposition of the materials in an unruffled lake through long periods, interrupted at intervals by the influx of new lava-flows or the burying of the bottom sediments beneath heavy showers of volcanic ashes."

In this we do not think the author ascribes enough to the agency of the winds. Our own conclusions in regard to the mode of origin of similar shales have been to the effect that a heavy wind had carried the insects, twigs, leaves, etc., out upon the lake, and at the same time filled the water with dust to settle and form a layer of the shale. The heavier matter, descending first, thus rested on the lighter of a preceding storm, and the differences in the material separated the lamina, the varying thicknesses of which were possibly determined by the violence and duration of the winds.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold-Foster, H. O. In a Conning-Tower. Cassell & Co.
Bancroft, H. H. Literary Industries. Harper & Bros.
Baldwin, Prof. J. Harper's School Speaker. Third Book: Miscellaneous Selections. Harper & Bros.
Beach, C. F., Jr. The Law of Private Corporations. 2 vols. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co. $12.00.
Besant, Walter. St. Katherine's by the Tower. Harper & Bros. $1.25.
Blackie, Prof. J. S. Greek Primer. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Boardman, Rev. G. D. The Problem of Jesus. Philadelphia: John Y. Huber Co.
Buchanan, R. The Coming Terror, and Other Essays and Lectures. United States Book Co.
Caird, Mona. A Romance of the Moors. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Chambers's Encyclopædia. New ed. Vol. VII. Maltebrun to Pearson. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Cobb, Sylvanus, Jr. The Fortunes of Conrad. Robert Bonner's Sons. 25 cents.
Corneille, Pierre. Polyeucte. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Drummond, Prof. H. What Is a Christian? and A Talk on Books. John Knox & Co. 35 cents.
Duchochois, P. C. Photographic Reproduction Processes. New York: The Scovill & Adams Co. $1.
Dyer, Prof. L. Studies of the Gods in Greece at Certain Sanctuaries Recently Excavated. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Fasnacht, G. Eugène. French Readings for Children. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Guyau, J. M. Education and Heredity. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Heinzen, K. The Rights of Women and the Sexual Relations. Boston: Benj. R. Tucker.
Hibbard, George A. Iduna, and Other Stories. Harper & Bros.
Hitchcock, Frederick H. The Handbook of Amherst, Mass. Amherst: The Author. $1.10.
Holmes, Mrs. Mary J. Marguerite. G. W. Dillingham. $1.50.
Holyoake, G. J. The Coöperative Movement of To-Day. London: Methuen & Co.
Hoxie, W. P. From Within. Philadelphia: George H. Buchanan & Co.
Kunhardt, C. P. Small Yachts: Their Design and Construction. New ed. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. $10.
La Brète, Jean de. The Story of Reine. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Lee, S. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXVII. Hindmarsh—Hovenden. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Leclerc, M. Choses d'Amérique: Les Crises économique et religieuse aux Etats-Unis. Paris: Plon.
Letters of Marie Bashkirtseff. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Lewis, L. The Diamond-Seeker of Brazil. Robert Bonner's Sons. 25 cents.
*Littell's Living Age.* April—June, 1891. Boston: Littell & Co.
Macdougall, Rev. J. Waifs and Strays of Celtic Tradition. Argyllshire Series, No. III. London: David Nutt.
Maartens, M. An Old Maid's Love. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Mairet, Mme. J. An Artist. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Maynard, Charles J. A Manual of North American Butterflies. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
McClelland, M. G. A Nameless Novel. New York: S. H. Moore & Co. 25 cents.
Munkittrick, R. K. Farming. Harper & Bros.
Musick, J. R. Columbia: A Story of the Discovery of America. Worthington Co.
Newton, Rev. R. Heber. Church and Creed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Payn, J. Sunny Stories and Some Shady Ones. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Penniman, J. H. A Graded List of Words Difficult to Spell. Philadelphia: Sherman & Co. 20 cents.
Phillips, Wendell. Speeches, Lectures and Letters. 2d series. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.50.
Pierce, G. W. The Life-Romance of an Algebraist. Boston: J. G. Cupples.
Pierson, Rev. Arthur T. Stumbling Stones Removed from the Word of God. Baker & Taylor Co. 50 cents.
Prichard, A. O. Aristotle on the Art of Poetry: A Lecture. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Quain's Elements of Anatomy. 10th ed. Vol. I, Part 2. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Richebourg, E. Old Raclot's Million. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Riddles of the Sphinx. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Riddell, Mrs. J. H. My First Love and My Last Love. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Roberts, Prof. C. G. D. The Canadian Guide-Book. D. Appleton & Co.
Robins, Rev. H. E. The Harmony of Ethics with Theology. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 50 cents.
Rolfe, W. J. Tales from Scottish History in Prose and Verse. Harper & Bros.
Roosevelt, B. Elizabeth of Roumania: A Study. London: Chapman & Hall.
Ross, C. The Adventures of Three Worthies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Russell, Henrietta. Yawning. United States Book Co.
Russell, W. C. My Danish Sweetheart. Harper & Bros. 60 cents.
Salos, Pierre. The Price of a Coronet. Cassell & Co.
Salmon, D. Longman's School Grammar. Longmans, Green & Co. 75 cents.
Salt Lake Fruit. M. W. Jones.
Sargant, E. B., and Whishaw, B. A Guide-book to Books. London: Henry Frowde.
Sargent, Prof. C. S. The Silva of North America. Vol. II. Cyrillaceæ—Sapindaceæ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Scidmore, E. R. Jinrikisha Days in Japan. Harper & Bros.
Shattuck, G. C. Memorials of St. Paul's School. D. Appleton & Co.
Shoemaker, J. V. Heredity, Health and Personal Beauty. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis. $3.50.
Sidney, M. Rob: A Story for Boys. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Smith, G. The Battle of Seven Pines. C. G. Crawford.
Smith, Goldwin. A Trip to England. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Spurgeon, Rev. C. H. The Greatest Fight in the World. Funk & Wagnalls. 35 cents.
Stanley, Rev. G. About an Old New England Church. Sharon, Conn.: W. W. Knight & Co. 50 cents.
Stebbins, G. B. Upward Steps of Seventy Years. United States Book Co.
Stephens, H. M. Portugal. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Stevens, O. C. An Idyl of the Sun, and Other Poems. Holyoke, Mass.: Griffith, Axtell & Cady.
Stifter, Adalbert. Das Haidedorf. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 20 cents.
Strayer, O. O. B. Master and Man. J. S. Ogilvie. 25 cents.
Strong, Rev. J. Our Country. 140th thousand. Baker & Taylor Co. 60 cents.
Super, Prof. O. B. Readings from French History. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.
Thompson, H. M. The Purse and the Conscience. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Thompson, M. At Love's Extremes. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Thompson, Sir Henry. Food and Feeding. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.
Thomson, Sir W. Popular Lectures and Addresses. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Uffelmann, J. Manual of the Domestic Hygiene of the Child. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Upham, Caroline E. Salem Witchcraft in Outline. Salem (Mass.) Press Publishing and Printing Co.
Venable, W. H. Beginnings of Literary Culture in the Ohio Valley. Robt. Clarke & Co.
Vincent, J. M. State and Federal Government in Switzerland. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. $1.50.
Walworth, M. T. Delaplaine. G. W. Dillingham. 25 cents.
Weeks, S. B. The Press of North Carolina in the 18th Century. Brooklyn: Historical Printing Club. $2.50.
Wentworth, G. A. A Higher Algebra. Boston: Ginn & Co.
White, Mrs. S. J. Business Openings for Girls. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.
Zangwill, I. The Bachelors' Club. Brentano's.

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